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ABSTRACT

The Archivist of the United States discusses the projects and plans of the National Archieves and Records Service in the first lecture entitled "The Role of Archives in the 1970's." The dilemma of reduced funding and increased costs facing university libraries is the topic of the second lecture in this series, "Reflections in Adversity; or, How Do You Cut a Library Budget?" "Literary Frauds and Forgeries" of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries aimed at deceiving the public were perpetrated by a desire for financial gain or prestige. The third lecturer sees copyright and communication as deterrents to forgery. In the fourth lecture, "Engineering Change in Librarianship: From Revised Paradigm to Prototypes for the Future," the author presents variable role models of prototypal forms for librarians to meet the challenges of the future. (Other lecture series are available as ED 050731, 050758 and LI 000599.) (SJ)

LIBRARY LECTURES

Louisiana State University Library

numbers seventeen, eighteen, nineteen, and twenty

January 1971 - March 1972

Edited by Caroline Wire

Baton Rouge, Louisiana

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Foreword

The LSU Library Lecture Series has continued to prosper through the participation of excellent guest lecturers and the continued sponsorship of Mrs. Ella V. Aldrich Schwing. Our sincere appreciation is extended to Mrs. Schwing, the lecturers, and all who have worked for the success of this series.

The LSU Library Lectures Committee and Miss Evangeline Lynch, who has served for three years as chairman of this committee, deserve special commendation for their efforts in arranging for the lectures which are included in this fourth issue of *Library Lectures.*

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The Role of Archives in the 1970's

by JAMES B. RHOADS

The significance of the invitation to an archivist to open this University's 1971 Library Lecture Series is not lost on me. To those who might think that there is a conflict between the work of librarians and archivists, let this be notice that we are brothers in purpose and colleagues in fact.

Certainly there are differences in the basic materials we work with and in the methods we employ. The librarian, for instance, is more concerned with individual items than the archivist who concentrates on functionally produced records in the aggregate. But we share the important objective of preserving and making available for use the materials in our respective custodies, which comprise, collectively, the recorded knowledge of the human race.

We can learn from each other; we can adapt some of the techniques from each other's disciplines. And in order to serve researchers who are wise enough to use both libraries and archives, we should be knowledgeable about both fields—not just our own.

Let me use this occasion to tell you something about the recent developments and plans in the world of archives, particularly that part which is tended by the National Archives and Records Service.

Perhaps it's time for the archival profession to take a leaf from Walt Whitman and mildly, very cautiously, "celebrate" itself. We may not have reached the archival Augustan Age, but as we move into the Bicentennial era, as we observe the establishment of the American people as a nation, there are strong encouragements for those who care about the records of the past.

The seventeenth LSU Library Lecture was delivered by James B. Rhoads, Archivist of the United States, on January 21, 1971. Dr. Rhoads received both his B.A. and M.A. degrees in history from the University of California at Berkeley. He was awarded the Ph.D. degree in history by The American University in Washington, D.C. Before assuming his present position, he served in various positions in the National Archives and Records Service, including assistant archivist for civil archives and deputy archivist of the United States. He is Chairman of the National Historical Publications Commission and the Archives Advisory Council. His memberships include the American Revolution Bicentennial Commission, the Board of Trustees for the Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars, the Board of Directors of the Harry S. Truman Library Institute for National and International Affairs, the Federal Council on the Arts and the Humanities, and the American Antiquarian Society. He is a fellow and council member of the Society of American Archivists and also serves on the Executive Committee of the International Council on Archives.

We can be heartened, for instance, by the general acceptance among the states of the Union of the necessity of state archives. Virtually all now have a designated archival agency. This wasn't the case just a few years ago when Ernst Posner published his landmark study, *American State Archives*. That was the year 1964, when there were still states that completely ignored their archival responsibilities—such as one venerable state with a candid official who informed Professor Posner that his state was "progressive but only if it does not cost money." That state, incidentally, now has a model archives.

More and more colleges and universities, I might add, have been establishing well-conceived archival programs in recent years, and their examples are encouraging other institutions of many kinds, public and private, to do likewise. The LSU effort under John Price is a good manifestation of an energetic university archival program, just as your State Archives and Records Service directed by Otis Hebert exemplifies the "new look" in state archival agencies.

What has brought us to this state of affairs in the 1970's? The dedicated work of many men and women since the Nation's beginnings, public officials who recognized the importance to the fledging Republic of keeping good records and keeping them in good order. Thomas Jefferson, in his various capacities, and Charles Thomson, the conscientious Secretary of the Continental Congress, come quickly to mind. In modern times, since the turn of this century, there were historians such as John Franklin Jameson and Waldo Gifford Leland who prodded the Federal Government into establishing a workable archival system on a national basis. Their efforts led to the creation of the National Archives in 1934—now the National Archives and Records Service of the General Services Administration. And the organization which I now have the honor to head has been in the forefront of the campaign for better archives ever since. The formation of the Society of American Archivists in 1936 brought together the archival movers and shakers, and the SAA has been influential over the years in promoting good archival practices.

As far as state archives go, the importance of Ernst Posner's study, made as a result of a grant from the Council on Library Resources to the Society of American Archivists, should not be underestimated. By presenting the unvarnished truth about each state's archival program, or lack of one, the study stimulated many a state into affirmative action.

We who are dedicated to spreading the gospel of documentary preservation and use would be foolish, however, if we allowed the successes of recent years to lull us. Ask just about any working archivist in the country, and he'll tell you that acceptance of the principle of an archives agency isn't automatically accompanied by provision of adequate staffing and funding. In some cases, we must admit, the organization exists primarily on paper.

I am reminded of the survey made in 1966 by the College and University Archives Committee of the Society of American Archivists and subsequently reported in *The American Archivist,* the journal of the Society, by Robert Warner of the University of Michigan. The project was undertaken to ascertain whether our institutions of higher learning have archives and, if so, what they consist of and how they are operated. There were indications then that about

half had archives of one sort or another. Some were excellent; others were not.

One part-time college archivist, with apparently many responsibilities elsewhere, reported her archival duties as dropping in "three times a year to dust." And among the holdings of other "archives" were listed such strange materials as "Roman documents," the "spade for breaking ground of new building," and "class relics."

My point is that all the archival bowers in the groves of academe are not flourishing and that you have to look behind the scenes to determine if what is labeled an archives is one, in fact. Part-time staff, fuzzy conceptions, inadequate funds and studious neglect do little to preserve those elements of the past which are worth preserving.

So as we enter more deeply into the 1970's we have cause to be happy about the spread of archival principles and facilities but reason to know that they are not always supported and employed adequately. Thus, we'll keep our "celebration" to a modest scale.

In speaking to you today about "The Role of Archives in the 1970's," I think it might be useful if I tell you what the National Archives and Records Service has been doing and is planning to do so that you might, if you wish, make any appropriate applications to your own areas of interest and responsibility.

Since the Bicentennial of the American Revolution is in the forefront of the minds of so many historians and of people just plain interested in America's past, let me describe some of the things that we are doing at the Nat Archives in order to help make this anniversary a meaningful one.

As a member of the American Revolution Bicentennial Commission I have had the privilege of participating in the planning of the general role which the Federal Government will play in the events of the Bicentennial period. Moreover, since the National Archives holds so much of the source material involved in the making of the United States through the Revolutionary and post-Revolutionary periods, we are going forward with a whole series of special projects in connection with the Bicentennial.

●●We are establishing a Center for the Documentary Study of the American Revolution which will bring together in one location in the Archives the source materials for study of that period, plus an experienced staff to assist researchers. Among other projects, that staff will produce a guide to the pre-Federal records in our custody.

●●We have already begun the publication on microfilm of the Revolutionary War Pension files and are scheduling other related files for microfilming to supplement those documents already available on film, such as the papers of the Continental and Confederation Congresses.

●●We applied for and have received a $150,000 grant from the Ford Foundation to help pay for a two-year project to index by computer the voluminous papers of the Continental and Confederation Congresses. Some 50,000 documents are involved, and when the indexing is done, they'll be much easier to use than in any other time in their history.

●●Getting a jump on Bicentennial activities, our staff revised and completely redesigned the Formation of the Union exhibit in the Main Hall of the

National Archives Building to provide a clear and concise account of the Nation's documentary beginnings for the large crowds of visitors expected during the Bicentennial years. A handsome new catalog and a packet of facsimiles of the documents have been prepared on the exhibit.

●●In addition to planning a series of lectures and symposia during the Bicentennial, we have invited the International Council on Archives to hold its quadrennial congress in Washington in the climactic year: 1976.

●●Last fall an issue of our new journal, *Prologue*, was devoted to late 18th century themes, and many more publications in connection with the Bicentennial are planned.

The mention of *Prologue* leads me to touch upon a series of actions which we are taking to make the holdings of the National Archives and Records Service better known to potential users, scholars and members of the public alike.

Prologue, which has already won an award in a Federal publications competition, came out for the first time in the spring of 1969. It now has a paid subscription list of some 3,000 and is circulated in some 40 countries. Most of its articles are based entirely or in part on records in our custody, and it is obviously serving as a stimulant for use of those records. It also contains information about new accessions and publications and other news about Federal archival developments. It is issued three times a year and is making a significant contribution to American historical scholarship.

The new journal is just one of the ways in which we have been striving to interest researchers and the public in the rich historical resources available in the Archives. Conferences which bring together the users, the custodians, and the creators of Federal Archives are scheduled twice a year on subjects reflected in our holdings. Last year the conferences were on urban research and public policy research. The first conference in 1971, next June, will be on research into the records of World War II and the records which deal with research in historical geography.

I plan to describe further the expanded services which we are providing principally for researchers, but first let me talk about programs we are conducting of interest to the general public as well as to the scholarly community. We are trying to let as many people as possible know about the variety and value of the holding of the National Archives. We believe, for example, that school children can profit from such knowledge as well as advanced scholars.

Exhibits continue to be an effective educational tool, and among our most recent ones have been extensive displays on the Federal Government's role in the development of aviation and space flight, the early printings of the Constitution, and the planning and growth of Washington, D.C., as the Federal city. The Secretary of State is joining us in sponsoring an exhibit in the National Archives this coming spring to be known as The *Art* of Diplomacy—focusing on aesthetic values to be found in the elegant, ornamented treaties of the past.

Interest in our motion picture holdings was fanned in the past year by a series of six film festivals on subjects ranging from the history of space flight

to documentaries and propaganda films made by both sides in World War II. So many persons showed up for the World War II program that we had to schedule an extra week of showings. Our aggregate attendance was over 5,000. Increased use of our film records has been the result. Regular film festivals are now part of our standard public activities.

Another public service involving films is our new National Audiovisual Center through which the public can obtain information about Federally-produced movies and film strips at one central point as well as the films themselves.

You can gather from my remarks that we are following an active policy at the National Archives of bringing our resources to the attention of the public as well as to the scholarly community. We take the view that a public archives should make an attempt to interest others in history besides the specialist, with particular emphasis on young people.

This does not mean that we are scanting our research services. To the contrary, we are working steadily to improve them. For instance, revitalization of our finding aid and publication program has been given high priority. A new general guide to the National Archives of the United States is scheduled for publication this year as well as a new series of inventories for individual record groups.

In this connection, we believe we are on the verge of a breakthrough in the production of the most basic archival tool: The inventory of records. Archivists long have employed slow, traditional procedures for recording information about their records and transcribing and editing this information into inventories and guides. The process is tedious, and much of it is not really professional in character. By combining portable dictating equipment and the computer, we think we have hit upon a way to speed production of guides and other descriptive materials. If our experiments continue to prove successful, we will be able to make more information available to the researcher in a much shorter amount of time.

Projects are being launched to provide more guides to records along conceptual rather than agency or organizational lines, and this should prove invaluable to researchers. Guides already have been produced to records of the Civil War and records relating to Latin America among others, and we are well on the way to completing a guide to Revolutionary War records. High on our priority list for new projects are guides relating to black studies and urban history. A black history specialist has recently joined our staff and will be working on the guide for that subject.

Among the programs that will receive increasing attention is the systematic "down-grading" of security classifications on World War II records in terms of recently liberalized guidelines. Another is a massive repair and rehabilitation program for deteriorating cartographic and audiovisual material.

We have also made a start on taking our records to the researcher to the maximum extent possible. I'm referring to the system of regional archives which has been established in 11 of our 14 Federal Records Centers around the country. In addition to maintaining original source material of regional interest in those locations, we are beginning to send them microfilm copies of

key records held in the National Archives in Washington so that researchers can consult them close to home.

The American Revolution isn't the only revolution that's a matter of concern to us these days. We used to say the computer revolution was on the horizon; the horizon is now in our midst. Within the past ten years many government activities traditionally accomplished by manual methods have been converted to automated methods. In a government where some six million rolls of computer tape have been accumulated by the agencies, we have the arduous task of identifying the estimated 100,000 reels that are archival in nature and should be retained. A data archives is rapidly building, and preparations are underway to begin the formal accessioning along with the documentation necessary to make the computerized information available to researchers This is a revolution which is going to be with us through the 1970's and far beyond.

There is considerable activity in progress at the six Presidential Libraries which are administered by the National Archives and Records Service. As you may know, these aren't "libraries" in the usual sense. They were established to preserve and make available for research the papers of former Presidents and those of their associates. Each of them also has a museum section where the President's memorabilia are displayed. Each also has a specialized library in the conventional sense of the term. Each modern President from Herbert Hoover on has such a library. The Lyndon Baines Johnson Library will be opened formally this spring on the University of Texas campus at Austin. The Kennedy Library is in temporary quarters at Waltham, Massachusetts, and construction of a permanent building at Cambridge is expected to start next year. The planning for a Richard Nixon Library has begun.

With steadily increasing use of the Libraries and with the continuing growth of their holdings, systematic attention has to be given to their space needs. New Additions will be opened at the Eisenhower Library in October of this year, at the Hoover Library also in the fall, and at the Roosevelt Library in the spring of 1972. Attendance figures indicate how much more the Libraries are being visited than in the past. Some 884,000 visited them in fiscal 1970, an increase of about 200,000 over the previous year.

One of my duties as Archivist of the United States is to serve as Chairman of the National Historical Publications Commission which meets periodically to consider applications for grants for publishing or microfilming the papers of important Americans. Over the past two years the Administrator of General Services, upon recommendation of the Commission, has made 69 grants averaging about $10,000 each to universities, libraries, historical societies, and other non-profit organizations to assist them in collecting and editing the papers of American leaders such as George Washington, John Marshall, Henry Clay, and others. In the years immediately ahead the Commission expects to put increased emphasis on source material for Black, Indian and other minority history as well as on projects that will facilitate study of the era of the American Revolution.

I recognize that I have been trying to give you a considerable amount of information about the programs of the National Archives in a short time

today. But there are two other areas of our operations that I also should touch upon.

One is our records management program which is a source of considerable savings to the taxpayer and which helps us keep our popularity rating in the Federal establishment. Over $30.0 million was saved in the past two fiscal years through the transfer of more than two million cubic feet of records from high-cost agency space to our low-cost Federal Records Centers. We expect to exceed that savings figure over the next two years.

Another $14 million savings has resulted from more than 100 paperwork management assistance projects conducted by our paperwork specialists for other Federal agencies in the past fiscal year, and we expect that kind of savings to exceed $16 million in the current fiscal year.

A final word about our day-by-day operations: Those of you who might find it a trifle difficult on occasion to decipher the intricacies of some of the Federal regulations which we print in our *Federal Register* will be pleased to know that we plan to add a "highlights" section in the spring, which is going to be dedicated to the laudable propositions of conciseness and easy-to-read language.

I realize that all the projects and plans of the National Archives and Records Service which I have talked about today may not be readily "translatable" to meet library or archival problems which are of more immediate concern to you. But this is what is going on in the NARS as we move deeper into the 1970's.

I believe that this decade will be one of both challenge and achievement in the archival world, as I am sure it will be in the library world. And I am certain that we can meet those challenges more effectively if we do so in the context of greater cooperation between librarians and archivists. As I said at the outset, it is my firm conviction that we have much to learn from each other, and I hope that the present occasion has contributed something to mutual awareness and understanding.

Reflections In Adversity; or, How Do You Cut a Library Budget?

by WILLIAM S. DIX

"In the day of prosperity be joyful, but in the day of adversity consider." This is what that wise old preacher Ecclesiastes tells us. The time to consider is upon us. I need not stop to document the fact that a considerable amount of adversity is indeed descending upon us. It may appear in the guise of declining alumni giving in the Ivy League or of Governor Reagan in California, but it is here.

The universities of this country have just been through a decade and more of perhaps unparalleled prosperity, and university libraries seem to have shared in this prosperity. In 1960 college and university libraries spent a total of more than $137 million. In 1969 they spent almost $585 million, an increase of 326 percent in nine years.

Now every university librarian knows that this apparent library prosperity of the recent past is not quite what it seems. In spite of these staggering increases, are we really responding to the needs of our constituents any better than we did ten or fifteen years ago? I rather doubt it. If my own impression is a correct one, this is a rather curious situation, and we might do well to stop and consider, as Ecclesiastes advises.

Why are we not meeting the needs of this collective consumer any better? In the first place, there is simply more of him. The U.S. Office of Education tells us that there were 3,597,000 students in the fall of 1960 and 7,572,000 in the fall of 1969. And in the kind of universities we are talking about particularly

William S. Dix, Librarian of Princeton University, delivered the eighteenth lecture on April 2, 1971. Dr. Dix holds B.A. and M.A. degrees in English from the University of Virginia and a Ph.D. degree in English from the University of Chicago. His academic career includes teaching positions at Western Reserve University, William College, Harvard University, and Rice University, where he also served as librarian before assuming in 1953 the position which he now holds. Dr. Dix has been a consultant to various colleges and universities on library architecture and has served in various capacities with UNESCO. He is currently on the advisory commissions of the New Jersey State Library, the Duke University Library, Harvard University Library, Yale University Library and Association of American University Presses. He is a member of the Advisory Council on Graduate Education. Among the many offices which he has held in professional organizations, Dr. Dix was president of the American Library Association, 1969-1970; executive secretary of the Association of Research Libraries, 1957-1960; member of the Board of Directors for the Association of College and Research Libraries, the Southwestern Library Association, and the Franklin Books Program. Dr. Dix is also a member of Phi Beta Kappa.

there has been a notable increase in the most voracious of our consumers, graduate students, faculty members, and research staff. At my own institution, probably one of the most stable in size, the number of graduate students has tripled in fifteen years. At the same time that the people have been multiplying, so have fields and sub-fields of knowledge being pursued in most universities. I calculate that at Princeton in the last fifteen years we have added twenty new programs of study offering the Ph.D.

These increases in people and fields of learning are obviously part of the problem. There is in addition a permanent factor, the inevitable incompleteness of every library. Even Harvard has only a tiny fraction of the total record of civilization and adds each year only a small proportion of the new records created that year. Perhaps this is the reason for a kind of sub-law of library nature: The appetite of the consumer always grows faster than the productivity of the cook.

This factor is partly psychological, a kind of revolution of rising expectations. It also has a hard statistical base. We all know about the exponential increase in the production of recorded knowledge, the doubling of the total record in most fields every ten to fifteen years. For example, the record shows that 13,826 new titles were published in the United States in 1957-59. In 1969, 24,288 were published. At the same time the average cost of new U.S. hardcover books had by 1965 increased 44.5 percent over the 1957-59 price index. By 1970 the price had already increased another 32.9 percent over a new 1967-69 average. It is obvious why we have had to run so hard to maintain the same relative sample of the world's book production, the records of society.

And it is pretty clear that the impressive dollar increase in university library budgets in this period of apparent university prosperity is illusory. While our budgets have been increasing so rapidly, the demands upon us have been increasing just as rapidly, or a little more rapidly. We are still stretched to the limit in attempting to respond to the demands of our customers. Any analogy of living off accumulated fat during the coming lean years is meaningless. We shall obviously have to practice more austerity, but at what point does austerity on top of austerity produce emaciation and anemia?

One solution, of course, would be for the library's cut of the total university pie to be increased. I happen to think that there is a good theoretical case to be made for spending proportionately more on the library. While this is a totally disinterested piece of education theory, for some strange reason it seems to be regarded as a piece of special pleading. Most large university libraries seem to spend somewhere between three and five percent of the university's total budget for educational and general purposes. This percentage does not seem to have been increasing, and indeed one gets the impression that it has declined somewhat over the past forty years, although the figures are slippery.

Why did the library's share seem to get stuck at this level? Is the library's contribution really only four percent of the total educational and research program of the university? Perhaps it was when one thought merely about

undergraduate education and when that education consisted entirely of reading a textbook and sitting in front of a lecturer the requisite number of hours, if there ever was such a day. Surely we have passed that day, and surely we no longer believe that being educated consists entirely of attending lectures. Furthermore, two-thirds of the library's share each year goes for the purchase of materials and staff costs of getting them on the shelf ready for use, a very long range capital investment. If it were possible to measure the source of each bit of education, it just might turn out that the library, even in its present imperfect state, is responsible for as much as half of the educational product.

I don't want to be misunderstood. As an old classroom teacher, I am certainly not saying that we can do without the teaching faculty. It is obviously central and essential, even if some of its time may be misspent in a lecture system. I am saying simply that the budget balance between the library and teaching departments might conceivably be rectified a bit. Maybe ten percent for the library instead of four?

This new cut of the pie is not likely to come about in a time of adversity. Practically, we had just as well admit that we are not going to change the proportions by cutting the size of the faculty. A change can come in the real world only by increasing the library budget more rapidly than the rest, an operation which can be effected only in a time of prosperity. But during this day of adversity we might do worse than follow the advice of old Ecclesiastes: "Consider!"—an improvement in the relative funding of the university library, among other things.

All of this discussion of why we haven't gotten farther in the day of prosperity is a sort of extended footnote. This is the day of adversity, and most university libraries are going to have to make do for a while with relatively less money than we have become accustomed to. What are we going to do about it? If it is not the appropriate time to be joyful, let us at least consider what insights this day of adversity may give us.

Let us suppose that our total library budget for next year must be smaller than it is this year. Even if we are to have the same number of dollars, we can buy less because of the rising cost of what we buy. Comparative statistics published recently in *Publishers Weekly* show that the average price of new hard cover books in the United States increased 22.7 percent from 1969 to 1970. The same dollar budget for acquisitions turns out to be a cut of more than one-fifth. This is not a minor nuisance but a major reduction. Let us suppose further that this reduced library budget is not a one year matter but that there is every prospect that we face five to ten years so lean that we can count on only the most modest increases.

What do we do? Where do we cut? I am not interested in producing a handbook for library administrators. Rather I want to look with you for a few minutes at that remarkable institution, the American university library, and to note what seems solid and what crumbles away when we put heavy pressure on it.

One way of looking at the problem is to ask whether we should cut

acquisitions or services. That is, pretty close to two-thirds of our annual expenditures are the first time costs of adding books and other materials to the collections, catalogued and ready for use. The other one third is the cost of everything else we do to make the existing collection perform its appropriate function in the educational and research program of the university. (I am excluding from this analysis the costs of capital construction and building maintenance and operation, very real costs to the university but considered separately in most institutions, I believe.)

One's first instinct is to cut services, as that part of the total library operation which is most temporary in its impact. The building of collections is part of a continuing process in which the value accrues over decades or even hundreds of years. Reduction of day-to-day services, on the other hand, to put it bluntly, may result only in one or two college generations of poorly educated students and frustrated scholars.

Viewed practically, however, this solution makes one uneasy. To explain why, I must at this point introduce a general consideration which is as difficult to explain because it is intangible. I firmly believe, however, that it is of the utmost importance. Each university library has a special feeling of its own, and one can almost group institutions into those with positive and with negative charges. This charge is a subtle thing, but it is real. About the closest one can come to approaching it statistically is to count the percentage of satisfied customers. The positively charged library is responsive, it works. The user generally gets what he wants when he wants it, or at least he knows that the library is trying to respond. He becomes a partner with the staff in making the library a more effective instrument.

The negatively charged library may be far larger, but the feeling is different. It just doesn't work. The user seems to confront a faceless bureaucracy, bent upon thwarting his reasonable wishes. He does not get the book he wants because it is housed illogically on the other side of the campus, because it is misshelved, because the circulation system has broken down, because it was never acquired, because no one seems interested in borrowing it for him on inter-library loan, because the staff seems incapable of understanding his needs and might just as well be handling cans of soup. The user does not become a partner of the negatively charged library. He kicks it in the shins whenever he can.

The whole matter, I repeat, is subtle but it is real. Peripatetic scholars can categorize university libraries, and even undergraduates can tell you the difference as they move on to graduate school in another institution. The tone of a library can change. Once the needle swings over to the negative side a sickening spiral can set in from which it is hard to recover. I could tell you, but I won't, about two libraries about which scholars talked with joy twenty years ago and which are now dead places even though they now have twice as many books. And I'd make some bets that certain others will be more happy and satisfying places to work in another ten years.

Now this long excursion is relevant at this point because many of the factors which make a library positive are products of that third of the budget which goes for day-to-day services. Little things are important. One can save money by laying off several shelvers, but misshelved books and disarranged stacks reflect a breakdown at the highest point of visibility to the consumer. One can reduce the professional reference staff and give no evening or week-end assistance, but the library then comes closer by those missing hours to that dead thing, a warehouse full of books.

There is, I fear, not much money to be saved on the side of ongoing services. It is too easy to start that fatal swing of the needle. We may cut hours a little here and there, but we hardly dare make the major savings that could be made by having no evening hours at all. Some economy-minded administrators may ask why people could not learn to borrow books before six, but this question betrays a lack of comprehension of what a university library is all about. It is not merely a check out station for books. It is, or ought to be, an active workshop where many students, particularly graduate students, spend their days and nights. It is simply the place where a great deal of the education takes place in a university, and universities are in the education business.

One can question whether some things which we do are worth their cost. I note that several libraries, under stringent budget cuts, have curtailed or dropped specialized acquisition lists, and there seems to be little evidence that they are missed. In a budget of several million dollars there is bound to be some dead wood. The first year of austerity may be a time of some healthy pruning. After that most of us will begin to cut into live wood.

For I suspect that under the mounting pressure to add ever more books, most university libraries may have already skimped their equally important staff programs for users, particularly undergraduates. Are we really serving as equal partner with the teaching faculty in developing and implementing active programs of instruction and research? Or are we merely custodians of books? I suspect that we should be allocating more, not less, of our resources to putting our collections to work, once they are on the shelf. These are good matters to consider in tight budget times.

Now we must turn reluctantly to the acquisition program in the necessary search for savings. We do this reluctantly because we know that this two-thirds of our expenditure is a capital investment. The collection itself is the one tangible and measurable thing we shall leave behind us, and its quality will have a great deal to do with the quality of the university as it moves on through the coming decades. Yet if we are to cut, we shall surely have to make some cuts in acquisitions, for here is where a lot of the money goes, and for every dollar we save in purchases, we save about a dollar in acquisition and cataloguing staff costs. Or if our preparation department is as chronically understaffed as most are because of the inexorable growth of acquisitions, we can catch up with the backlog by lowering the level of acquisitions somewhat.

But how and where shall we make the cuts? The forced consideration of

this problem under the pressure of adversity may give us some insight into our normal acquisition policies. The first thing that may become apparent as we begin to tinker with this problem is that we really have very few management tools at hand. I wonder how many university libraries can produce accurate answers to the following questions:

1. Of the monographs we bought last year, how many were new, how many old, and how were expenditures distributed between new and old? This is a useful thing to know, for our collection in some fields may be good enough to permit in a time of budget crisis a temporary decision to buy only new works, to keep up with current publication only.

2. How much did we spend for serials? No one likes to drop a serial, for everyone knows that it costs vastly more to buy a file later when we find that we really do need it after all. (Everyone knows this, but a full analysis of staff costs might still be instructive on this point.) At any rate, serials are nasty things. They go on forever, except when they die suddenly, causing us substantial funeral expenses. They slip away and multiply like amoebae when we are not looking. They increase in cost even faster than books. As a result of all these bad habits they tend to eat up a larger and larger proportion of the acquisition budgets of large university libraries. When we cut, we shall have to weigh carefully the possibility that we cannot really afford to maintain so many serial titles and keep up with current monographs as well.

3. How many of our serial titles are duplicated, in how many copies, in what locations, and why? Particularly in libraries with many branch or departmental collections duplication is an insidious growth, and here we may have a fertile field for pruning. Convenience should perhaps become the first victim of austerity, and a five minute walk may do old Professor Buckram good. And yet (always that *and yet* is with us) how many of these walks add up to library failure and another nudge of that needle toward the negative charge?

4. How much did we spend on acquisitions for each of the last five years in each field of knowledge, broken down roughly to the level of teaching departments and programs? And what were the staff costs associated with each field, from book selection on through ordering and cataloguing until the book is on the shelf? This sort of analysis is so instructive that it should probably be suppressed immediately whenever it is tried. The discrepancies from field to field will probably be surprisingly large, and no amount of argument that a historian needs and uses more books than a physicist is likely to convince everyone. Furthermore, an attempt to work out the cost per student may add insult to injury, for some of the most costly fields are likely to have the fewest students. I know of an institution where an honest attempt to introduce Korean studies ended up after two or three years with a substantial library program, two faculty members, and one student. I use "ended up" advisedly, for the program was regretfully dropped.

This is one reason why I believe that an attempt to make this sort of cost analysis, field by field, is worth doing. A university can reduce its

budget simply by lowering a great weight on top of everything, including the library, and squashing everything down uniformly. The result is likely to be a shapeless pulp. An institution aiming at quality must have a proper suspicion of this method.

Another way is to identify those academic areas which seem least productive and which can be isolated without damage to the rest of the fabric, then to amputate them with surgical skill. The trouble is that the definition of "productive" is difficult. Applied Folk Dancing 512 may have the heaviest enrollment on the campus, but it should not necessarily be the last course to survive as academic starvation sets in.

Furthermore, the thigh bone turns out to be connected to the hip bone and everything else, and the surgeon may end up using a meat axe rather than a scalpel. This is particularly true in the library, where the No Man is an Island Principle has real as well as poetic truth. What diminishes one field is very likely to diminish all. Professor Amos Entwhistle, who teaches Stabilized Aramaic, may be secretly happy to see his colleague Hepzibah Krankpuss and her courses in Akkadian get the axe, but the comparative linquist in him will scream when the librarian proposes to stop buying scholarly works on both Upper and Lower Akkadian.

Yet something like this is the obvious answer. The library must continue to build in those areas where there are active teaching and research programs in the university. It must regretfully cut back in a time of adversity in those fields which the university cuts back. Let us hope that there are enough periods of prosperity in the century for the library to do more than slavishly supply those reserve books which the faculty needs tomorrow. This is when libraries become great libraries. Archibald Cary Coolidge was building the great Harvard Slavic collections as early as 1895 before there was much in the way of Slavic studies at Harvard, and Princeton acquired and nourished the Gest Oriental Library a good twenty years before the Chinese language was even taught at Princeton. But the problem before us today, alas, is winding down rather than building up. My point is that the winding down, whenever it is necessary, must somehow be done without damage to the essential fabric. To perform this operation we need management tools of a sort which many of us don't have or have allowed to rust.

5. Finally, one more of these embarrassing questions: How many university libraries have an acquisition policy statement which identifies the ten or twenty sub-fields within each discipline and indicates for each of these subfields the level of completeness to which the library aspires? That is, how many have a policy statement which says, for example, that the library aims at a comprehensive collection, in all periods and all languages, in entomology but wants no more than a basic reference collection in vertibrate paleontology? Stanford has just finished the most complete one which I have seen. I must confess that I started work on just such an acquisition policy at Princeton almost twenty years ago and, time being short and flesh weak, then lost interest in it. I wish that I had it now.

It is obvious that such a ranking of priorities must apply not only to the library but also to the university as a whole. It must be a public document, ratified and certified by every identifiable administration, faculty, and (nowadays) student committee. To achieve that beautiful omelette would require the breaking of some eggs and diplomatic skill of an order that may not now exist on an American university campus and certainly not in Washington or Moscow. But think how rewarding it would be when thirty graduate students stage a sit-in in your office to protest your parsimonious buying in the field of canon law to pull this treasure of a document out of the top drawer and say: "But you forget that our acquisition policy, approved by the president, the crew coach, and Professor Sixtus Ecclesiasticus, says that canon law before 1200 has only a Class D priority."

Not only would a document of this sort give the otherwise naked librarian some shelter from the snipers who lurk behind every bush in a time of budget stringency, but some consensus as to what is important and what is not really necessary if one is to wind down a book budget and still maintain a major library. This is another management tool which we really do need. There are those who will say that all you need is a scholarly specialist bibliographer to use his best judgment in spending whatever money you make available to him. They forget that this scholarly bibliographer, who is not inexpensive if he is any good, may himself be the first casualty of that austere budget for fiscal year, 1973.

That is enough questions, enough to make most university librarians stop and consider. Perhaps the most important thing we do is to invest almost two-thirds of our income each year in the gathering and organizing of our collections. These are capital expenditures in an intellectual resource which will last longer than the buildings which hold it, longer than the third generation computer next door, longer than the cyclotron or the accelerator on which the Atomic Energy Commission has spent millions and then abandoned ten years later. The library, the collections of books and journals and manuscripts, in the words of Samual Davies, President of Princeton in 1760, "is the most ornamental and useful Furniture of a College, and the most proper and valuable Fund with which it can be endowed." I have spent a considerable amount of time over the past twenty-five years trying to convince people that books are not enough, that a warehouse full of books is not a library. That fact is to me indisputable; yet the core of that powerful instrument of teaching and research is the collection itself. I am simply saying for the moment that the management tools which most of us have developed are something less than adequate for the countless decisions which we must make in the building and moulding of that ever growing collection, especially in a time of adversity.

There is time for only one more reflection in adversity, and it cannot be developed fully here. It is the other side of the coin which I have just been trying to analyze, the importance and the management problems

of building collections of real excellence. The second side should not be hard to decipher. It complements, not contradicts, the first side. It tells us quite simply that no matter what the quality of our individual collections, we shall have to depend more and more on the collections of others to meet the needs of our students and scholars.

We have known this, at least intellectually, for a long time, certainly since Fremont Rider pointed out in 1944 that college and university libraries grow at an exponential rate. In 1940 my predecessor and colleague, Julian Boyd, wrote at the birth of the Farmington Plan, "The fallacy of an impossible completeness in any one library should be abandoned in theory and practice; librarians should now think in terms of 'completeness' for the library resources of the whole country."

Yet we really haven't done much about the problem of the future. There is a substantial literature on library cooperation, on the problems of specialization and sharing. Yet we have made little progress toward a rational national system of research libraries, linked together by mechanisms for bibliographic control and the delivery of texts which are at least adequate.

Aside from the inherent and formidable technical difficulties of the problem, two reasons why we have not moved further toward a solution may be noted here. In the first place, twenty years of relative prosperity since World War II have blunted the incentive. Knowing that, no matter what happens in the future, that university will probably be best which has the best library, we have used the money we had to strengthen our own collections. The hard times which have come to most of us may have stimulated us again to think a bit more about ways of making research materials available other than by owning them independently.

A second reason for our sluggish movement toward a national system is our professional eagerness to please and the insatiable appetite of our resident scholars for the satisfaction of having the books they need immediately at hand. Both of these attitudes are human and indeed praiseworthy. One does not increase his campus popularity by telling old Professor Buckram that not only is he going to have to take that five minute walk next year because you have dropped a duplicate serial title but that five years from now he may have to wait twenty-four hours while you get his serial from the Center for Research Libraries. Costs by that time will have forced you to drop twenty of the extremely obscure serials on which his research into the rather odd sex customs of the Highland Molabi seems to thrive. No one else on the campus uses them. The subject matter is interesting enough, but they are not illustrated, and they seem to be written almost entirely in Bulgarian and Marathi. Professor Buckram is not mollified by your optimistic forecast that by 1990 he can have the article he wants transmitted by satellite from the new National Serials Library to his desk in thirty seconds. The good professor retires in 1984.

One solution to the problem is as obvious as it is hairy—get rid of

Professor Buckram. Better yet, get rid of whole races and sub-continents. Now I am not proposing genocide, but merely a more rational specialization in doctoral programs among American universities.

Even if its performance is no better than the rest, Princeton seems to have been thinking about the idea, probably because of Calvinist parsimony. I have already quoted my predecessor Julian Boyd. Now I hope that you will forgive me if I quote myself, at the Cornell dedication of 1962, and in the process quote a still earlier Princeton Librarian, Ernest Cushing Richardson:

> To be blunt, we could have had for less money a better national pool of research material for international studies if we had worked out a national or even a regional program of institutional specialization. In this audience I shall not say that librarians knew this before presidents and deans, but they have known it for a long time. I quote Mr. Richardson again. The date is 1910: "If this matter of co-operation could be organized systematically, it is within bounds to say that it might reduce by one-half the financial problems of equipping American Universities and American research scholarship in general, with proper book aparatus."
>
> Instead of each library doing one or two areas well, building solid and deep research collections, we have seen each apparently trying to cover the whole world with inadequate resources. Presidents, deans and librarians all know now that unless you can absolutely forbid work in a field in a university, you end up scrambling to build a research collection. It seems to be one of the laws of nature that you can't have a little bit of Africa! Thus I am led to be blunt again: we shall never have a logical plan of library specialization in the United States. I do not say this bitterly, only with a certain sadness for the death of logic, and boundless admiration for the inquiring mind of the scholar, the ingenuity of academic politics, and the exuberance of free American institutions.

This note of pessimism was sounded in a period of relative library prosperity. Perhaps in a time of relative adversity we shall consider harder and do better.

You have perceived by now that I have got you here under false pretenses. You came to find out how to cut a library budget, and you have discovered that I have really used the budget excuse to sound off on some notions about university libraries which have been growing into doctrine in my own mind.

1. That university libraries ought to have at least ten percent of the university budget—but are not likely to get it soon.

2. That we ought to do better with our direct public services instead of concentrating so heavily on collection building—but are not likely to mend our ways.

3. That we need much better management tools—but will find it difficult to develop some of them.

4. That we must of necessity find ways of sharing our resources equitably—but may discover that this is the hardest job of all.

Lest you think that I should have begun with a quotation from Jeremiah instead of Ecclesiastes, let me state a final conviction. While our progress in the directions which I have indicated is hardly impressive when one emphasizes our faults, we still have the best university libraries in the world, in considerable part because of what has been done in precisely these areas. We are still not too strong on the sharing concept, but we are working on it.

Literary Frauds and Forgeries

by BENJAMIN E. POWELL

Perhaps I should have added facsimiles to the title, but reprinting nowadays is big business—and legal—and should not be mentioned in this context. I shall, however, mention a facsimile or two that appeared years ago but occasionally present problems today. You will be familiar with most of the "cases" I shall mention, but any day one might appear in your library, so you should be prepared to detect and to isolate books and manuscripts that are not what they purport to be.

You will encounter from time to time spurious editions of printed works and manuscripts whose authors, because of vanity, modesty, greed, or whatever reason, chose not to be identified with their work. Whether you are in a public, special or college library, you will be expected to know more than most people about books and manuscripts. You will be assisting scholars who, for their special research, will want every edition of a published work, every scrap of manuscript material from marginalia, notes, correspondence, to variations of proofs. Your users will expect you to be bibliographers, subject specialists, administrators, depending upon the information they need at a given time. To expect all of this is, of course, utopian. The best we can do is work toward that goal. We can, however, study our own collections and learn about the special editions under our care; their provenance, why they are rare, and the purposes they can serve.

Distinguished early librarians were said to have strong retentive memories, knowledge of all their books, and the ability to distinguish the

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genuine from the counterfeit. (1) A retentive memory remains an important part of a librarian's qualifications. One of my first university professors, the director of libraries at Duke during the early years of its transition from college to university, believed that an effective librarian should be able to recall the image of the important books he handled: color of the binding, size, number and importance of illustrations, maps, etc. Dr. W. K. Boyd was a great collector and teacher, and I learned something in the 1930's—the depression years—by watching him select materials from pick-up trucks loaded with books from basements and attics of houses throughout North Carolina, Virginia, South Carolina and Georgia which his "scavengers" brought to the shipping entrance of the library. His memory for books was extraordinary.

Frauds and forgeries in literature are almost as old as literature itself. The annals of creative writing, book publishing and related fields are filled with cases in which claims about the origin and provenance of a manuscript or printed book are misrepresented. The motives for and the character of these frauds vary greatly.

We must not criticize the early scribes—before the age of printing—who copied to spread knowledge, or the editors of the sacred writings who attributed certain writings to great names in order to give them authority (Psalms to David; Hebrews to St. Paul; all of Isaiah to that Prophet); or the other ecclesiastical forgeries whose objective was the advancement of Christianity. The infant church, fighting for its existence, could not be particular about the weapons it employed. Although it is unlikely that a literary and historical conscience existed in the early Christian environment, the fabrication of documents and other devices necessary to the furthering of the church probably would have been justified anyway in the minds of the clergy. (2)

Copying by hand was the only method before the fifteenth century of setting down one's thoughts or of reproducing a copy of what had been written by another. There was pride, naturally, among the copyists and competition to see how closely they could imitate the handwriting of those whose manuscripts they were copying. Some wrote with such skill and high artistry that only an expert could distinguish the reproduction from the original. It is easy to see where such skills might lead when possessed by unscrupulous men. It is also easy to see how such skill might lead one to be accused as a forger when there was no intent to deceive.

With the coming of the renaissance, and criticism, many frauds were exposed. But with the revival of learning and the extension of education came also demand for literature and for the classics. Many unscrupulous dealers were at work and given time could produce almost any manuscript. Genuine originals still were uncovered frequently enough, however, to make it relatively easy to sell a fresh forgery to an eager buyer. Literary forgery thrived. It has been claimed that much of the work attributed to early philosophers was forged(3)—and that all the classics except Cicero, Pliny, Virgil, Herodotus and Homer were forgeries. While

that claim is more than most present-day philosophers accept, it must be admitted that forgery flourished and much of it was without intent to deceive.

Most of the cases to which I shall refer were of the last century or so and were aimed at deceiving the public.

Most nineteenth and twentieth century forgers were motivated by a desire for financial gain or prestige. Dr. Rosenbach told a story about a wealthy man, a distinguished book collector, who in his youth tried his hand at forgery. He was eking out an existence copying deeds and other legal documents in New York City when Quaritch, the London bookdealer, held an exhibit of manuscripts and books in the city. He wanted to buy certain of them but had no money. He decided therefore to make a manuscript and offer it for sale. There was interest in those days in Major André, who had suffered death as a British informer, so the young man manufactured a letter from André to George Washington asking that he be shot as a soldier rather than hanged as a spy. It was a good job, and he sold it immediately for $650. Thirty years later, when he was a noted book collector and wealthy, he learned that an André letter was to be auctioned in London. He cabled a bid and got it for 250 pounds. It was his old fabrication.

Forgery has been practiced most frequently in the area of autographs and letters. During the middle years of the last century the most notorious forger was Vrain-Denis Lucas. Lucas went to Paris at 34 hoping for a job in the Imperial Library or in a publishing house. Finding neither, he became associated with a firm engaged in forming pedigrees and justifying titles. His first commission was to draft a letter which established the kinship of a 19th-century marquis to a 16th-century cardinal. Successful in this, he was off to a fabulous forging spree. He preyed principally on Michel Chasles, a prominent mathematician, astronomer and collector who believed Lucas' story about a magnificent collection of autographs belonging to a French count who was lost at sea. The collection reportedly was saved and Lucas empowered to sell it. With Chasles' offer to buy, Lucas began to turn out documents and within eight years had sold him 27,000.(4)

Among the fabrications he produced was a series of letters supposedly written by Pascal to Robert Boyle, the English chemist and physicist, which indicated that Pascal had anticipated Newton's discovery of the law of gravitation. The Academy of Science in Paris, upon examination of two of his letters, made enough fuss to land Lucas in the courts where the whole story of his duplicity came out. He got two years in jail. He had forged and sold letters of Julius Caesar, Cleopatra, Pontius Pilate, Joan of Arc, Judas Iscariot, Herod, letters from Alexander the Great to Aristotle, from Alcibiades to Pericles, from Mary Magdalene to Lazarus and from Lazarus to Peter. All of them were in contemporary French, and all of them were on modern French paper.(5)

Robert Spring was one of the better known forgers of Americana of

the 19th century, specializing in Washington and Franklin letters. An intelligent forger, he used the paper of the correct age and ink that immediately acquired a certain and necessary tarnish. His "best seller" was a pass supposed to have been issued by George Washington: "Permission is granted to Mr. Ryerson, with his Negro man, Dick, to pass and repass the picket at Ramapo. (Signed) George Washington." Hundreds of these passes were placed in circulation.(6) Examination of this photoprint of an original Washington letter will reveal slight differences between the genuine and the forgery.*

Another of America's talented forgers was Alexander H. "Antique" Smith. He began in 1890 with a forged Robert Burns letter, but ranged far and wide with letters of Mary, Queen of Scots, the Stuart kings, Prince Charles and Oliver Cromwell and others of such stature coming frequently from his pen. He was the most skillful of his time. He chose his paper carefully from quartos and folios of the right period with the proper watermarks. If necessary, the paper was stained with weak tea, coffee or tobacco juice and the ink doctored to give it a tarnish.(4, p. 2383)

The New York Public Library preserves an interesting collection of illustrations of duplicity in the literary world as a sort of public service. In that collection is a small pocket Bible inscribed "From my dear friend. Dr. R. H. Morrison," and signed "T. J. Jackson, Lexington, Virginia, December 20, 1860." Dr. Morrison was Jackson's father-in-law. The Bible came through the bookman, A. S. Clark, of New York City, in this manner: In October 1891 a young Southerner, who said he was Thomas Chancellor, came into Clark's bookshop and produced the Bible containing the above description. He said it was the property of his grandfather, Melchisedec Chancellor, for whom Chancellorsville was named. On the evening of the first day's fighting there, he said, Stonewall Jackson was brought into the Chancellor home dangerously wounded. As his coat was removed so surgeons could attend his wounds, the little volume fell from his pocket and was set aside by the family. Clark bought the book and paid Chancellor generously. The young man then went uptown to another dealer, produced another well-worn little Bible, and made another sale. In the end six New York dealers and three in Philadelphia had bought copies. The Charles Woodward copy, which also finally got to the New York Public, carried this on the fly leaf, "I will do my duty and leave the rest to God. T.J.J., April 28, 1861." On the blank leaf between the Old and New Testaments was penciled "Tho' the clouds are lowering, I pray God be with our cause today. T.J.J., Chancellorsville, May 2, 1863." That night he received his fatal wound.

The affidavit Chancellor signed certifying that the Bible was genuine proved to be in the same hand as the inscription. Here are photographs of inscriptions in the Woodward copy, also an original Jackson letter, and the

*Photostatic examples and slides which were used by Dr. Powell during his lecture to illustrate certain of the forgeries have not been included with the text of this lecture.

facsimile of a letter he wrote the day he was wounded. Chancellor's manner was disarming. He appeared shy and lonely and more familiar with cows and corn than with business methods. His tearful story was that his grandfather had left the Bible to his son—Thomas's father. "When Pop died he had nothing to leave me but the Bible and his watch. He told me on his death bed not to part with the Bible, but I have no money and I have got to sell something and now this is all I have got to sell."(7)

Sometime after this fraud was discovered and publicized, Chancellor offered another Bible to a New York dealer. This was the tenth. The dealer recognized his story and told him that the police inspector wanted to see him. Chancellor appeared hurt that his honesty was questioned and the respected family name in danger of appearing on a police register. Requesting information about where he could see Inspector Burns, he set off in that direction to clear his name and was seen no more.

It should be apparent that this May 2 Jackson letter is a facsimile and that facsimiles are not originals, but occasionally the ink and paper have colored so perfectly that it is difficult to distinguish between them. I am reminded of a Byron letter which the poet wrote to his Paris publisher in 1819 denying authorship of "The Vampire." When the publisher brought out Byron's complete works in 1827, including his suppressed poems, he inserted in the volume a lithograph of that letter. Since it was easily removed, many copies come into auction houses and libraries through the years labeled as genuine.(4, p. 2388)

But the Byron letter could never match the January 4, 1800, issue of the *Ulster County Gazette* of Kingstown, New York, in the confusion and disappointment it generated. The Library of Congress received so many requests from persons owning the January 4, 1800, issue, which carried an account of the death of George Washington, that it published a note explaining how an original can be recognized. At least a hundred reprint issues of the *Ulster County Gazette* of this date have been distributed, each differing from the others only in slight details. Just remember this, however, that no more than three copies of the original are known to exist. These are in the Library of Congress and the American Antiquarian Society.

If you have an original it will be printed on handmade rag paper, soft, pliable and rough in texture like this copy of the *Washington Federalist* of 1802. Most of the reproductions are on thin, brittle wood pulp paper like this *Rockingham Register* of 1903. If it is an original, the last line on page 1, column 1 will read ". . . liberal execution of the treaty of amity . . ."; the first line on page 1, column 4 will read ". . . command the town and notwithstanding. . . ."(8)

Here are photoprints of the first page of the original and of one of the reprints. There are other marks of identification if one wished to become an expert on this issue. A few years ago I received a letter from a Floridian requesting advice about the market value of his copy of the *Gazette* and the name of a dealer likely to be interested in buying it. In

suggesting a reputable bookman on whom he might call, I asked if he knew his was an original, explaining that discovery of another copy would attract considerable attention. He thanked me, saying if he had not known his copy to be an original he would not have inquired. I wished him luck and told him that if the last line in the first column read ". . . liberal execution of the treaty of amity . . ." he was indeed in luck. He did not reply.

Almost as frequently seen is the *New York Herald* for April 15, 1865, containing a report of the assassination of President Lincoln which has been reprinted many times. Five editions appeared that day. Here are copies of a facsimile of the 8:10 a.m. fourth edition and an original from the Perkins Library's file of the *Herald*. The principal difference to watch for is in the texture of the paper.

The frauds perpetrated by William Ireland, an Englishman, toward the end of the 18th century are well known. Young Ireland's father was an admirer of Shakespeare and, as an antiquary, collected everything he could find on his idol. The son obviously had talent as a copyist and while quite a young man began playing around with signatures. His concentration on Shakespeare appeared to grow out of his wish to assist his father and to attract his attention. The first paper he "found" bearing Shakespeare's signature was a lease he had forged. Then came Shakespeare's "profession of faith." Later he forged notes from Queen Elizabeth to Shakespeare; a love letter and a poem from Ann Hathaway; a complete manuscript of King Lear; and at least one hitherto unknown play, "Vortigern and Rowena." Much of the scholarly world was taken in, but almost simultaneously with the production of the play in London, Edmund Malone, who had been suspicious all along, published his "An Inquiry into the Authenticity of Certain Manuscripts."(9) The evidence was so conclusive that Ireland confessed immediately in his own published work, "An Authentic Account of the Shakespeare Manuscripts." Subsequently he wrote several novels and for a while earned his living selling specimens, and so identified, of his forgeries.

A sadder story is that of John Payne Collier, a reputable critic of English dramatic literature. Although a recognized scholar, Collier was not content with the prestige accruing on the strength of his research. He was impatient and wanted something more spectacular. With preconceived theories about Shakespeare, with access, because of his reputation, to the documents scattered through British libraries and archives in the early 19th century, he supplied documents confirming his theories and added them to the collections, later publishing them as having found them there. He was scholarly enough, of course, to fit his forgeries into the known historical background with almost perfect plausibility.

But he overplayed his hand in 1852 when he reported that a 1632 folio edition of Shakespeare's plays, which he had purchased some years ago, contained, he had just discovered, annotations in a 17th century hand on almost every page: corrected punctuation, substituted words, new stage

directions, and the like. The owner apparently had made corrections, Collier said, from another text, a more faithful one, perhaps from Shakespeare's own manuscript. Scholars became suspicious when many of the notes, explaining what Shakespeare really meant, jibed completely with what Collier had been saying for years. When they were finally able to examine the volume carefully, it was discovered that the notes had been first written in a 19th century hand with pencil, later erased, and the same notes written with pen in an earlier hand. After Collier's death in 1883 there was found among his papers the transcript of a diary he had made from a collection in the Dulwich College Library with the same interlineations as they appeared in the original; the interlineations had been added later to his copy, too. Vanity and not material gain was what motivated Collier. He set his goal and simply had his sources confirm his theories. (3, pp. 33-35)

One more example—one that shook the bibliographical and literary world in the 1930's. Since 1890 many little booklets—about fifty titles in all—bearing the names of eminent Victorian authors—had been appearing on the book market, usually several titles together at a single sale. Their imprint dates ranged from 1847 to 1890. They were pamphlets such as men like Browning, Tennyson, Swinburne, Ruskin, and Kipling might prepare in small editions to present to friends. But when one stopped to appraise a collection of these rarities he became suspicious: not a single copy bore an inscription from the author; all were in mint condition; none had appeared on the book market before 1890; and none had been mentioned in the writings of the authors, or listed in their bibliographies published before 1890. There was no evidence anywhere of anyone owning one of them before 1890. The contents of the pamphlets were always genuine, the text of each having appeared in authorized works of the author. Elizabeth Barrett Browning's "Sonnets from the Portuguese," for example, was published with her works in 1850. Among these mint copies was one bearing a publication date of 1847.

John Carter and Graham Pollard, two enterprising and skeptical young rare book dealers, decided to look into the matter and began by putting Browning's "Sonnets from the Portuguese" to some tests. Their first discovery was that the paper on which the "Sonnets" was printed was of chemical wood pulp, a development of the early 1880's. The type was then tested. A kernless type font had been used, and that type was designed in 1883. The characteristics of the type led them to the printer, but all of his records before 1911 had been destroyed. They could only ascertain that this pamphlet had been published between the early 1800's and middle 1890's. Evidence began to incriminate Mr. Thomas J. Wise, the foremost bibliographer of the age, and a man who was at that time befriending the Duke University Library. Here is a copy of Tennyson's *Lover's Tale* which was acquired from Mr. Wise in the early 1930's. It is on chemical wood paper and the type is kernless.

Mr. Wise started out as a clerk in the oil business. He was interested

in books, was thrifty, bought excellent editions in English literature, prospered in business, bought more books, and ultimately became recognized as the foremost bibliographer of English literature of the early 20th century.

Evidence pointing toward Wise was (a) the Clay Company, which used the kernless type, published many items for the Browning and Shelley Societies with which Wise was closely associated; (b) Wise had published many rare items himself; (c) he said a good word for the spurious pamphlets when they appeared at auction; (d) he had given to libraries many of the forgeries and had sold them among his duplicates. The final and completely damning bit of evidence against him was exposed when Herbert Gorfin was identified as the book seller through whom these pamphlets were getting to the book market. He reported that all came from Mr. Wise. Wise, when confronted, promised to review his memory and let Carter and Pollard know what he could recall about his knowledge of the forgeries. They never heard from him. But Wise immediately called in Gorfin and paid him 400 pounds for the pamphlets he was holding for sale, and these he burned.

Young Carter and Pollard published in 1934 "An Enquiry Into the Nature of Certain Nineteenth Century Pamphlets," an interesting volume in which they present the whole case with the evidence.(10) Mr. Wise never admitted his guilt. He wrote two feeble notes to the *Times Literary Supplement,* in which he tried to shift the responsibility to a fellow bibliographer, and died with the secret in 1937. There is absolutely no doubt of his guilt. Why did he prepare these pamphlets? Obviously to make money. He had them printed before he was secure financially and before he was recognized as a great bibliographer and benefactor of libraries. He had a bear by the tail, and when he achieved fame he couldn't let it go or make it disappear. Wise had the confidence and respect of the book world. It was easy, therefore, for him to take everyone in.*

We still are not critical enough and place too much trust in the printed word. For example, not long ago a "Temporarily Out of Order" sign was placed over the night depository outside a London bank and a substitute box placed down in front of it. Patrons of the bank continued to drop their envelopes with checks and paper currency as though nothing had happened. But before dawn the chap who made the changes—who was not a banker—carried away the box and its contents.

But when a fraud like that of the Lost Colony stones of 1937-1941 carrying messages from the Roanoke colonists, gets out of hand we recognize it for what it is. This has no association with literature, but the early phases of the story were so intriguing, all of the developments were followed closely. In September 1937 a stone carrying an inscription was found on the Chowan River in the eastern part of North Carolina. On one side of it was carved "Ananias Dare and Virginia Went Hence Into Heaven 1591. Anye Englishman shew John White Gov Via." The finder

*Most of above references to Wise are from Carter and Pollard.

was a small produce dealer of Colorado. He was touring North Carolina and decided to park his car and look for hickory nuts in the woods. The place between Edenton and the Chowan River where he stopped is almost 100 miles from Roanoke Island. Mr. Hammond, the produce dealer, said he stumbled over the stone, a 21-pound quartz, saw the inscription, put it in his car and later took it to Emory University for examination. A professor in the History Department became interested. On the reverse side of the stone had been inscribed several lines—a message from Eleanor White Dare to her father, John White, describing the troubles of the colonists after White's departure for England. In part it said "foure myles easte this River" another stone could be found containing the names of those buried there. Here then must be the graveyard of the lost colonists. The professor searched the area, but neither he nor Hammond could locate the site where the stone was found. A reward was offered for the second. Here the picture becomes really confused. In 1939 a man named Everhart, a stonemason, no less, brought in a stone found near Greenville, South Carolina, 350 miles or more southwest of Edenton. This contained an inscription, but obviously not the second one referred to. Everhart had heard of the reward; he brought in twelve more stones, all fitting the jigsaw. Then in the Atlanta area, another 100 miles farther away from Roanoke Island, were found additional stones, all inscribed and all bearing on the same subject. Meanwhile, many authorities examined the first stone and declared that the language did appear Elizabethan and the leaf mold in the grooves indicated great age. But suddenly there were too many stones from too far away, and English language scholars who did not agree with the earlier authorities.(11, 12) At last report the stones were being held in the Brenau College Library.

One could go on naming cases and people—Alberti, Chatterton, Bertram, Psalmanaazaar, McPherson, and others who forged for pecuniary ends, political passion, vanity, for the sheer joy of deceiving their fellows, or for exercising or displaying their talents. Among them is a librarian, Edmund Lester Pearson, who, in his "Old Librarian's Almanack," 1774, had fun with librarians sixty years ago.

Our contemporaries are still at it. *Time Magazine* reported in the September 6 issue on the coming publication of *A History of the Modern Age* written by Julian K. Prescott, a former U. S. Undersecretary of State for Political Affairs, and edited by Prescott's old professor, Neil F. Morrison, who took the manuscript after Prescott's death in 1968. It was described as a fairly detailed and intimate account of activities of the Kennedy and Johnson administrations, but with fact and fiction so interwoven that it would be difficult to separate them. *Time* said, however, that both the author and the editor are fictional characters and that this literary hoax may be the work of John K. Galbraith, who apparently has some talent for this sort of thing.

I mentioned the pleasure derived by forgers from their handiwork. It is unlikely that any forger derived more pleasure from his work than did

a young man in a federal prison in Tennessee a few years ago. He was able to secure his release from prison by forging a letter of release from Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy, a court order signed by a state judge, and a transmission memo from the state attorney general. The prisoner worked in the file office where commitment reports and papers and other prison records were kept. Frequently he was all alone, so before his papers were in order and his freedom assured, he had equipped himself with blank checks on the Tennessee Justice Department which enabled him to draw out $100,000 or more before he was apprehended again.

We have not mentioned the genealogist and the kind of forgery his research fosters. The pedigree maker's objective, generally, is to make one's family appear ancient and well connected. In this area, frauds are committed daily, but they are relatively harmless, and the consumer himself, who permits a modicum of imagination in the preparation of his heraldic symbols, encourages them.

Frauds in literature have always been with us. I am told that 80 percent of all foreign antiques brought into this country are fakes. One authority has said that Rembrandt painted 700 canvases and 10,000 of them are in the United States. That may mean that we are more gullible than other people, but most likely it means that we have more money and, therefore, are inclined to be less critical. In literature, copyright has become a deterrent to forgery. Communication is another. No longer can one publish another's manuscript, calling it his own, and expect to get away with it. We have to remember, however, that among creative and research scholars, among book publishers and booksellers, as among other classes, one can find enough naiveté and enough dishonesty and enough crooks to make it desirable for anyone in the book and manuscript collecting business always to keep his guard up.

1. Jack A. Clark, "A Search for Principles of Book Selection, 1550-1700," *Library Quarterly* 41 (July 1971): 216-222.

2. H. M. Paull, *Literary Ethics; A Study of the Growth of the Literary Conscience* (New York: Dutton, 1929), pp. 19-25.

3. Andrew Lang, *Books and Bookmen* (New York: Coombes, 1886), pp. 16-18.

4. Thomas F. Madigan, "How Do You Know it is Genuine," *Publishers' Weekly* 116 (November 16, 1929): 2384-85.

5. Waldemar Kaempffert, "The World's Most 'Cultured' Criminals," *Saturday Review of Literature* 27 (June 3, 1944):5.

6. Gerald Macdonald, "Forgeries in the Library," New York Public Library *Bulletin* 41 (1937):623.

7. Gerald Macdonald, "The Shelf of Forgeries," New York Public Library *Bulletin* 37 (1933):201-3.

8. H. S. Parsons, "Ulster County Gazette," *Library Journal* 56 (April 15, 1931):363.

9. John Mair, *The Fourth Forger; William Ireland and the Shakespeare*

Papers (New York: The Macmillian Company, 1939), pp. 24-25; 167-72.

10. John Carter and Graham Pollard, *An Enquiry Into the Nature of Certain Nineteenth Century Pamphlets* (London: Constable & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934.

11. Boydin Sparks, "Writ on Rocke," *Saturday Evening Post* 213 (April 23, 1941):9-11 +.

12. Haywood J. Pearce, Jr., "New Light on the Roanoke Colony," *South Atlantic Quarterly* 37 (May 1938):148-163.

Engineering Change in Librarianship: From Revised Paradigm to Prototypes For the Future

by PAUL WASSERMAN

As prelude to change there must first be revised ideology. This implies a metamorphosis in the *weltanschauung* within the discipline. But the commitment to earlier values is deeply engrained i[n] the psyche of the practicing community and for perspectives to become otherwise calls for radical shifts. Such modifications arise out of evolutionary or revolutionary intellectual alternatives, or both. In the line of analysis which follows, we shall draw extensively upon the model which Thomas Kuhn advances to explain the nature of scientific progress.[1]

Even in science, subject to its precision, not only does it take new theoretical perspective to catalyze revolution, but ideology also has its place. In science, revolution follows discovery. In human affairs, revolution more nearly comes as the consequence of an explosion of earlier mythology and the substitution of ideology different in kind or in degree.

Librarianship appears to be a discipline in search of a new paradigm, that basic framework of shared understanding out of which the commitment and consensus of the discipline continues and perpetuates its tradition.

[1]Thomas S. Kuhn, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1962).

The twentieth lecture was delivered on March 24, 1972, by Paul Wasserman, Professor and former Dean of the School of Library and Information Services, University of Maryland. He holds a B.B.A. from the City College of New York, a M.S. in library science and a M.S. in economics from Columbia University, and a Ph.D. in library science from the University of Michigan. He has served as a librarian and professor at Cornell University, visiting professor of library science at the University of Michigan, and lecturer at the School of Library Science at Western Reserve University. He has been a research and planning consultant to both state and national groups including the Public Health Service, the Manpower Training and Review Commission of the National Library of Medicine, and the Ohio State Board of Regents. Dr. Wasserman is active in national and international library groups and is the United States member of the Committee on Education and Training of the International Federation for Documentation. Author of numerous articles, he is series editor of "Manpower Research Studies," and managing editor of "Library and Information Science Today," "Management Information Guide Series," "Readers in Librarianship and Information Science," and "Contributions in Librarianship and Information Science." His monograph *The Librarian and the Machine* was published in 1965, and Bowker will publish his most recent contribution, *Leadership for Change in Librarianship*, in the fall of 1972.

Perhaps librarianship is still at the pre-paradigm stage where its characteristic beliefs and preconceptions equip the observer to perceive only some small distinct portion of a reality too grand and complex for rational perception and shared insight. This may simply be another way to explain the difference between those who cling to the older view and those striving for new perspectives.

In science, the paradigm is an accepted view of truth and the object of amplification, demonstration, and observation under varying conditions. It is this framework which functions as the basis for the rules and relationships engendered in a field clustered around the commitment which is reflective of the paradigm. Scientific values are then related in standard texts, lectures, and institutional rituals which in combination form the basis for the study and the practice through which new disciples learn their craft. In an emerging field, however, it is not simple to perceive or to describe, and so to analyze, the accepted principles and rules which stem from the paradigm. For as they are rooted in no scientific evidence, the shared beliefs are subliminal and not expressly detailed or articulated. Indeed, there is no assurance even that the existence of the paradigm requires extant evidence which fully interprets or rationalizes it, nor does it imply that there will be any set of rules to prescribe behavior and performance as a consequence of its acceptance.

The paradigm of the social organization is its tradition. It is seen reflected in the character and the shape of the values held by those who lead and who thus mold its practice. One necessary precondition which gives rise to the emergence of different or novel reconstructions of the paradigm for a field is the crisis of the times. It is only when there is an anomaly between the prevailing ethos of the discipline and the real world and its requirements that the folklore of orthodox believing is subject to severe strain. Even then, once those who have had the faith begin to be shaken and to conceive of the possibility that alternative explanations and avenues of opportunity might be preferable, there is no clear renouncing of the prior paradigm which may have given rise to the crisis. For once a paradigm has achieved its status it cannot be declared invalid until, and only until, a new paradigm is available to replace it.

The evidence of scientific history suggests that the act of judgment which leads to the rejection of the previously accepted view of the world is always based upon more than a comparison of the effect of its operations measured against reality. Such a decision to reject the old paradigm is always simultaneous with the decision to accept another, and the judgment leading to that decision involves a comparison of both paradigms with nature and with each other. If the same natural process governs social phenomena, we are led to the conclusion that librarianship will not adopt a new stance even when the field is more fully cognizant of its inadequacies and limitations until, and only until, there emerges another view of the world which will be acceptable to those who practice and be more consonant with the realities of the world than the prior prescriptive mold. The emergence of new prescription which

breaks with past practice cannot be assumed to find acceptance unless it arises at the point where earlier tradition, translated into terms of present functions, is seen to have gone astray. This implies a crisis state, or at least a state of affairs which is seen as threatening. The perception of crisis or of threat is not uniformly, universally, or simultaneously perceived by all who play roles in a particular discipline. The clarity of perception may be correlated with age, with the strength of commitment to earlier values, with the propensity toward reality or detachment, as well as with the psychological state of the individuals. To the extent that motivation and aspiration are identified with narrow technical limits, the reality and the truth of the larger context are inevitably obfuscated.

Crisis, when it is perceived, serves as spawning ground of new invention. It can be seen to relax the pat perceptions of the organization and its responses and thus offer up the data necessary for a fundamental change in the paradigm. It is interesting to note that those who typically achieve the fundamental inventions which form the basis for a new paradigm are either very young or very new to the field whose paradigm they change. The modern history of librarianship tends to bear out how the most basic contributions to the reconstruction of its intellectual perspective and of its ideology, or of its technological structure, have tended to be drawn from the outside into librarianship rather than to have arisen from its own ranks. The field itself has provided rather the solidifiers, the codifiers, the ritualists, the guardians of the status quo, with only rare exceptions.[2]

It may be just this logic which at root impels a discipline to draw into its educational ranks, and on occasion to its administrative structure, those who bring the perspectives of uncommon disciplines. For it is such newcomers, little conditioned by earlier practice to the norms and values of a given field, who are likely to perceive most clearly how the rules, the rituals, and the conventions that the field has fashioned may hold little relationship to the basic set of problems which needs to be addressed. Just as scientific revolution is spawned out of the malfunction which leads to crisis, so is the social or political revolution engendered out of the sense that existing institutions no longer adequately resolve the problems imposed by the environment which created them. It is out of such a process that a new paradigm comes to be constructed and ultimately to replace its predecessor.

New interpretations, either of a theoretical or a pragmatic nature, tend first to emerge out of the vision of a few. Whatever the basis out of which the alternate perspectives are fashioned, the acceptability of the new tradition inevitably encounters reluctance among those heavily committed to past designs. And within the context of the single discipline or the practice of a common profession, competing paradigms can hold sway. For different individuals, different groups, can observe, can perceive the same questions from varying vantage points. The public librarian may perceive the need for a revised dialectic, and in crisis invert from collection zeal to dramatically heightened client responsiveness, at the same moment that his academic counterpart holds

[2]Frermont Rider and Ralph Shaw would be two such exceptions.

steadfast to the fervent building of collections for a generation of scholars yet unborn. The shift in ideology as a critical response may come at a different rate, or not at all, in one or another of the applied dimensions of professional practice. Nor is the transition between competing paradigms made in logical sequence, or universally agreed to, for it may occur at different rates in different settings. The transfer of ideological allegiance is an experience which cannot be enforced. Allegiance to the entrenched paradigm stems from a lifelong commitment, a professional career steeped in the older tradition of the discipline. A deep-seated source of resistance is the conviction that the older perspective will ultimately win out and thereby obtain for the future as it has in the past. It is for this reason that it is not uncommon for a whole generation to pass before necessary change becomes standardized.

Crisis provokes new prescriptions. But acceptance of alternatives remains also a function of the cast of professional mind. A groping toward adaptation is as much a matter of faith and hope as it is of certainty. To strive for a modified professional stance is as much a measure of its psychological propensity as it is of scientific assurance and the sounds of the technical arguments which point to another direction. What must follow ultimately is more than the conversion of individuals or of a single group, but a shift in the broad set of allegiances among those in the profession. At the outset a new paradigm will have few supporters, and the motives of these supporters will be suspect. It will succeed only on the strength of the persuasiveness and the utility of its arguments. Eventually the number of experiments and propositions and preachings based upon the paradigm must multiply so that additional numbers will become convinced of the truthfulness and fruitfulness of the new stance.

It is precisely here, at this predisposition state, where many in librarianship now cluster. It is seen in the strivings of those who band together for reasons and purposes of social responsibility, but who have yet to translate commitment and relevance to the library's human client as their prime focus. It can be read in the groping toward systems analysis among those who seek to transform the library technology into terms of economy and efficiency, but without yet questioning for what end. It takes shape in the energetic efforts of those who fashion service centers which seek to exploit for library purposes newer audio and visual media, but who have yet to fully reckon with the child and the teacher in the new equation. In each of these spheres, new paradigms attend the calculation and illumination of explanatory theory and ideology.

The problem of a professional discipline, unlike a scientific one, is that ultimately the evaluation of competitive schools, competitive paradigms, is not a matter of peer evaluation. It is the layman, unschooled in the technical discipline, from whom approval and ultimate support is sought. The new propositions which are formulated eventually meet their test in the marketplace. The consumer of the service, the client, decides. Yet in those emergent fields, those in flux or characterized by a quickened tempo of change, constituencies have, even less, neither the experience nor the technical capacities to make evaluations about new evolutionary stages. The professional discipline itself is relied upon for the expertise in finding the proper turning at the

crossroads and progressing in the most logical new direction. Thus it is only at the point when cultural recognition perceives the incongruity of the technical choice with lay aspirations that disillusion and ultimate dissent may ensue. The critiques of modern educational method written in recent years by aroused contemporary nonprofessional observers at the scene illustrate how this can come to pass.

The development and the acceptance of a new paradigm results in concession to a new perspective. It is for this reason that the conservatism of professional practice cautions prudence, guards carefully against acceptance of novelty for its own sake, undesirable. Herein lies a very heavily loaded instrument for fending off alternatives. In the hands of the adroit it may be seen as an ideal self-defense mechanism to insure continuity without deviation, just as tradition has always had it, whatever the cost.

Debates over paradigms are not only about the relative problem solving ability of the discipline, even though they may be so disguised in the rhetoric of discussion. The circumstances of the decision to revise the ideological basis for practice must be grounded less on the issue of past achievements as on the promise for the future. Those who offer a new paradigm at an early stage have very limited evidence to propose of its utility for problem solving purposes. They have only their passion and commitment and the faith that the new proposal will find success with many large problems with which the field is confronted. They are certain only of the fact that the traditional paradigm has failed or is failing. Herein resides the most powerful argument of all for the mounting of proposed alternatives.

Prototypal Forms of Librarianship

The most telling as well as the most potentially influential phenomena are the actual instances of departure from conventional norms in ways which offer a variable paradigm for library practice. Libraries have been conceived primarily to be collections of resources gathered in one place with the materials organized in order to be used by a clientele which is assumed to be essentially familiar with these resources. Certain of the doubts which now arise relate to such questions as the limits of the collection content based upon traditional criteria for the collecting function, alternatives to the information resources which libraries hold to which clients have recourse or may come to find recourse, whether there should be active intervention of librarians as agents of clienteles for problem solving purposes. Essentially, the idea of systems (networks) and user orientation (rather than institutional or material orientation) is at issue. The basic problem is that of reconstituting the intellectual framework of the field in order to conjure with options which devolve about potential revisions of the conventional perspectives of the field. For the matter is substantially that of ethics and values and derives from the basic commitments of those who must decide for the library as an institution. However, to specify simply or to idealize in terms of theoretical constructs can never allay the fears and doubts of those for whom the only convincing evidence of possible alternatives arises from the demonstration of adapted designs in the real world

of practice. It is for this reason that experimental and developmental efforts, even when they are widely sensed to be threatening to established values and conventions, still hold the greatest promise for inducing the open debate and the public dialogue about values without which traditional arrangements and conventions remain sacrosanct.

The need for a revised paradigm appears to find expression in librarianship in what can be characterized as essentially four discrete areas. The first is represented by efforts to revise and reconstitute the formal arrangement of libraries as systems or networks, so as to condition a fundamental shift from an ideology supportive of the self-sufficient, independent library to one embracing constantly increasing and widening elements of service, cooperation and reciprocal contributions. The second encompasses those devices which attempt to alter the educational design in such a way as to restructure the ingredients of educational preparation for the discipline by shifting the subject content, by experimenting with new modes of teaching and learning, and by evolving through experimentation potential new and emergent work roles for students. The third design centers upon the reconstruction of library activity within an individual setting in such a way as to embrace responsibilities, commitments, clientele responses, which vary dramatically from the traditional norms of practice of that institution. The fourth constitutes experimental effort which centers upon new role definitions for the enactment of the professional function; under its terms the professional practitioner not only assumes a revised relationship vis-à-vis the organizational culture within which he performs, but, even more dramatically, alters the relationship which obtains and the sense in which he is seen by his clients for whom he serves as active agent or advocate.

In no individual instance is there clearly discernible evidence of a fully reconstituted effort which serves incontrovertibly to demonstrate and to convince librarianship that here is a universally acceptable and viable prototype for alternative forms of response. Still it is to the first emergent traces of new designs that it is necessary to turn since it is out of such experimental modes, through demonstration and by example, that the powerful influences for change may hold the greatest inspiration. Such efforts form a crucial element in the leadership structure necessary to beckon and to catalyze others who will follow and thereby ultimately abet the acceptance of different paradigms of the disciplinary contribution. Furthermore, it is clear that the evidence of crisis in conventional library response is written largely in the very attempts which the vanguard group mounts in order to shape potentially effective alternatives. For this small coterie, the risks of change are seen as less threatening than the tenacious clinging to a structure of practice founded in values which form the basis, at best, for only a shrinking level of professional response and of professional responsibility.

Revised Organizational Groupings

To consider regroupings of library forms is to consider not one but

a whole range of potential new patterns and relationships, which, in sum, may represent the effects of a more natural evolutionary process than a distinct break with the past. The various arrangements shall be treated separately, not because such designs are mutually exclusive, but rather because it is easier to understand their nature by considering discrete forms as models of different types. Our classification shall cover (a) regroupings by type of library, (b) regroupings by geographic area, (c) regroupings by function, (d) regroupings by subject area, and (e) all encompassing designs.

By Type of Library. The classic pattern of regrouping has historically been one of simply evolving a wider span of service for a particular library by organizing its elements on a decentralized basis. The public library branch system and the university system of decentralized departmental libraries are illustrative. The same logic which assumed the organizational and clientele utility of such schemes is inherent in the elaboration of designs to encompass more than the original independently operating single library entity in the city or the academic institution. Propelled in part by the potential of enhanced support from higher jurisdictional levels once the limits of local service autonomy were transcended, and in part by the twin appeals of managerial economy and extending the collection base to wider numbers of clients, the concept of larger units of service was early advocated by a committee of New York librarians in 1949 and by several subsequent surveys of library development in that state.[3] Although not fully implemented until 1962 with passage of an adequately funded state-aid law, the appeal of the New York model to other regions was apparent. It was to such a design that the earliest federal support terms for libraries were oriented.[4]

As in New York State, from county to multi-county level, particularly for those geographically dispersed and thinly populated areas seemed a reasonable and natural progression, with the states serving as prime movers in such advances. For if the pattern had intrinsic value, why not extend it to wider geographic areas? This direction seemed particularly attractive if the political appeal of these regroupings could be translated into terms of economy, efficiency and the extension of library service to unserved elements, or at least if these appeals could be understood by those who

[3]A comprehensive review of system development in New York State is contained in: Harold S. Hacker, "Implementing Network Plans: Jurisdictional Considerations in the Design of Library Networks," Working Paper D-2. *Proceedings of the Conference on Interlibrary Communication and Information Networks*, Airlie House-Warrenton, Virginia, Sept. 28-Oct. 2, 1970 (Chicago: American Library Association, 1971), pp. 1-79.

[4]Under the terms of the Library Services Act of 1956 (P.L. 84-597) eligibility for federal funds was established upon submission of an acceptable state plan for extension of library services to rural areas. As detailed in early assessments of the legislation, "Every plan includes the goal of larger units of service. Cooperation is the key word in all . . . Some of the most impressive results of the Library Services Act—brought out in one aspect or another—can be found . . . in the demonstration and development of county and regional library systems and in the initiation and development of cooperative projects." U.S. Office of Education, Library Services Branch, *State Plans Under the LSA (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office,* 1958), p. 3, and *Supplement 2*, (1960) p. 7.

would in fact provide the support, whether the ideal could be met or only aspired to. The basic problem inherent in such designs in many instances was that of attaining relinquishment of local autonomy to the larger jurisdiction. The same rationalizations which at an earlier stage, or even simultaneously, were impeding the development of school systems across a wider base obtained here as well.

Although it calls for the banding together of libraries, singly and in concert, the library program identifies essentially the same ends, with aspirations unchanged. The form of library services is fundamentally unaltered, only the grouping and interinstitutional relationships are modified. The striving on the part of the control bodies is thus not to do something intrinsically different from the historic contribution of the independent library, but only to extend the economic and political base. In its multicounty service patterns, the public library appears to have been stretched to the limits of its potential for regrouping. The next stages in its ambition, as we shall see, call for cooperative regrouping across type of library lines.

Academic libraries have been more recalcitrant to accept regrouping, but the evidence of cooperative and reciprocal patterns appears to be finding more adherents, particularly in face of mounting financial stringency. Nor are such patterns fundamentally new. The Joint University Libraries System at Nashville, Tennessee has served in such a fashion for a number of years.[5] But because autonomy of operation in an individual academic setting is not normally seen as relinquishable to a wider library organization or jurisdiction, as is possible in the case of public libraries which function more independently rather than as part of an overall educational complex, different patterns must usually be evolved. Here the several libraries are obliged to remain identified with their own institutions while simultaneously attempting to derive the benefits of cooperative and regrouped effort. The appeals to library administrators, and perhaps as frequently to those to whom librarians are responsible, relate fundamentally to two issues. The first is the fact that computer technology holds out promise ultimately for being able to effect economies when adapted to the requirements of libraries with similar problems and responsibilities. The second is the ever mounting spiral of acquisition costs and the concomitant realization that comprehensive collections in any but the greatest libraries of the land are not realistic. The consequence is a spate of current experiments in order to design types of academic library collections oriented to the testing of strategies related to collection building and reciprocity as well as to improvements in technical functions.

Involved typically is a mutually shared investment on the part of several institutions in developmental efforts, with the expectation that ultimately

[5]Comprising the general reference and research collections of adjacent Vanderbilt University, George Peabody College for Teachers and Scarritt College, the General Division of the Joint University Libraries was established in 1936 and housed in a central building in 1941. More specialized collections of the several institutions are also maintained in other campus locations.

there may come into being the operational and organizational terms and continuing interdependencies and relationships generated out of such probings. The several forms which such groupings have taken are reflected in such operations as the following: The Ohio College Library Center, chartered by the State of Ohio in 1967 and encompassing the more than fifty institutions of higher learning throughout the state in a program to provide on-line remote access to a computerized central catalog and circulation file and a computerized technical processing center;[6] the Five Associated University Libraries (FAUL), a coalition of public and private institutions in upstate New York initiated in 1967 to facilitate access to member staff and collection resources and to devise a cooperative plan of expansion and growth;[7] and the Library Council of the Consortium of Universities of Washington, D. C., one facet of a 1964 agreement among five institutions in a single metropolitan area to explore means of organizational adaptation to advance common academic goals.[8] Varying widely in aspiration and attainment, at the least each operation represents formal commitment on the part of participating members to the desirability of transcending individual institutional capacity in meeting what has heretofore been the traditional library service responsibility of the independent academic institution's library. Whether or not such compacts and realignments in the course of their eventual technological and operational upgrading can ultimately be expected also to generate enlarged perceptions of and novel responses to user needs remains conjectural.

Regrouping by Geographic Area. Having reached what appears to be the limits of the potential for reorganization of libraries by type of institution into larger units of service, and in recognition of the fact that under these terms client opportunities remain foreclosed from access to materials contained within collections of a different nature and oriented to different ends, natural progression led to the notion of extending the boundaries outward in order to formulate designs for new groupings without restraint as to type of library. This has been referred to as the "second generation" of regional networking.[9] Under these terms the regrouping

[6]See Frederick G. Kilgour, "A Regional Network—Ohio College Library Center," in *Datamation* 16 (February 1970): 84-87. The circulation system is now operational, as reported in "Ohio State Circulation System Claimed Unique," *Library Journal* 96 (Jan. 1, 1971): 20.

[7]FAUL development, problems and projections are summarized by its chief administrative officer in: Ron Miller, "A Case Study of the Five Associated University Libraries," Working Paper D-5, *Proceedings, op. cit.*, pp. 1-33.

[8]The Consortium of Universities of Washington, D.C., was established in 1964 to coordinate relevant university-wide operations and programs of the five metropolitan institutions. The Library Council has initiated daily materials delivery, photocopying, TWX communication, direct interlibrary borrowing privileges for doctoral and master's candidates, and a modest cooperative acquisitions plan. The second edition of a computer-produced *Union List of Serials* was issued in 1970. Since July, 1970, the Library Council has retained a full-time Director who is particularly concerned with the definition and implementation of special collection areas for the participating institutions.

[9]Hacker, *Proceedings, op. cit.*, p. 59-63.

cuts across type of library lines and holds the potential for bringing into a reconstituted information system the resources of every kind of library within the geographic area. Once more the idea finds its inspiration in New York State. This prototypal form has come to be known as the Three R's System[10] which superimposes upon the framework of twenty-two public library systems a pattern of access to the research and reference capabilities in academic, public and special libraries within nine discrete regional areas.

Again, as was the instance of the larger units of public library service, the main propellant is a state-wide library developmental effort with the prime stakes seen in the political strategy of attracting additional support from higher jurisdictional levels in order to demonstrate the viability of providing information service to different clienteles, drawing upon the resources of libraries of all kinds. In this way, the strategy of resource solicitation is escalated upward, built upon a new set of premises which transcend those of library services to individuals through the mechanism of the public library. Moreover, herein resides the promise of enhanced financial support as a condition of participation and the sharing of resources by academic and special libraries, neither of which has yet enjoyed the benefits of public largesse to the degree that public libraries have. In a period when organizational cost-consciousness is constantly mounting, the prospect of such external funding holds powerful allure.

In its ideal state, this reconstituted library scheme would represent a breakthrough for information service and skirt the normal type of library constraints which restrict access to materials by virtue of the limits of individual institutional requirements. Thus, members of the public would have potential recourse to the holdings of academic and special libraries and vice versa. The essence of the design is simple and straightforward. But it does not conjure fully with the entrenched private interests of the organizations and agencies who become party to such activities; both their history and their psychology continues to see primary allegiance addressed to those within the confines of the local institution rather than at other points outside the institution's base. Perhaps a more fundamental limit of such a design is that the banding together of libraries does not necessarily dictate any greater sophistication about the product or the service of the library system. All that is effectively changed is the formalities of inter-institutional relationships. Interlibrary loan thus is raised to a higher level of importance, but it is still the traffic in books and the interchange of access to them extended beyond the public library to other forms and reciprocally. As a practical matter, clients of the academic and the special library have traditionally had full access to public library resources, and

[10]For Reference, Research, Resources. Thus far school library resources have not been incorporated into the program. The most recent evaluation of the 3 R's operation within the context of the total state system can be found in: State Department of Education, New York, *Report of the Commissioner's Committee on Library Development* (New York: The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, 1970).

oftentimes the reverse has been equally true. Whether the chronic recalcitrance of the great academic library, reluctant to make available its resources outside its institutional bounds, is likely to be lessened under these terms, is a matter for conjecture. Moreover, the problems of political survival in even evolving the designs which make such interrelationships possible have called for the highest degree of caution and circumspection in their plotting. Rather than experimental and innovative efforts, the net effect of many such arrangements, as they can be perceived, has been to quickly derive rigid lines of organizational and structural stability in order to ensure that financial support may be drawn from the appropriate jurisdictional levels. The very process of meeting the detailed operating prescription of a state as to formal structure, albeit essential to satisfy statutory requirements, more frequently than not, may effectively foreclose the possibility of bringing into being alternative approaches to the handling of information needs of the regions wherein such programs are engendered. Seen most pessimistically, such phenomena may represent merely a new political alliance, reinforcing the survival capacity of the traditional structural interests. Thereby, they may be afforded renewed capacity to elicit support from the state and perhaps ultimately from the federal government, as in the instance of the larger units of service concept for the public library at an earlier stage, through the substitution of a refurbished and updated formula. The true question is whether the promise of improved client response is realized through such devices, or if the proffering is simply the most recent political ploy of the fertile imagination of its designers. The political expediency of the design rests in the expectations which it holds out to the general public for the reformulation of institutional library boundaries so as to, in effect, open up a whole new system of library and information access. But these expectations are not tied to any new forms of information service, nor to revised types of response to information needs, so much as to the provision of access to books through inter-institutional lending arrangements which have not been formally evolved in the past.

The inevitable question is whether the fundamental rationale for such projected cooperative regroupings may not simply be the quantitative reinforcement of the capacity of the larger library collections precisely as they are through new forms of subvention, with only the slightest nod in the direction of modifying their responsibility to clients in their region other than their normal constituency, sufficient to ensure eligibility. As the projected systems which cross type of library bounds evolve, if indeed interlibrary transfer of books and journal articles occupies highest place, without serious attention to such issues as subject responsibility to regional clienteles, feasibility studies of potential new forms of informational problem solving, and analysis of information seeking patterns and requirements of the various constituencies, the outcome may afford only slight advantage.

Regrouping by Function. A variation upon the same theme is the scheme of several libraries coming together in order to achieve joint ef-

fectiveness through taking a common approach to a specific technical need or client service. The historic pattern operative at an earlier stage and continuing into the present is reflected in the development of cooperative processing centers in which several independent public libraries or county systems come together in order to acquire and prepare for use materials of a like nature which are expected to be needed in different libraries belonging to the same central processing program.[11] The latter day prototypal counterpart which represents a departure from focus upon technical process to client need finds expression in those few attempts which seek to provide public services. A notable illustration in the area of reference activity is the BARC Project headquartered at the San Francisco Public Library.[12] Just as are many of the other prototypal and experimental efforts, BARC receives its funding through state support, and while administered under the jurisdiction of the city library, its program groups together a number of the libraries of the region which have banded together to explore non-traditional alternatives to information services. Stemming from such a design, the base of expectations has been adapted,[13] and under the loose mantel of the regional information phenomenon have come attempts to reorient library service to specialized clienteles in ways only rarely seen as reference phenomena. Thus, working with street groups in slums and using neighborhood personnel as members of the information team has led to further experiment with novel forms of information service and demonstration. Some of the interesting by-products have included the generation of special bibliographic contributions and the issuing of a regular publication, *Synergy*, which sets a standard for institutional library media in its preoccupation with topical issues, style and contemporary format, and the dissemination of information of reference value to the region.

[11]One of the more sophisticated recent operations is the New England Library Information Network (NELINET) involving the active participation of the libraries of the State Universities of Connecticut, New Hampshire, Rhode Island and Vermont but open to all academic libraries in the area. The processing center utilizes MARC II and RECON tapes and is developing methods for effective regional utilization of a large machine-readable bibliographic data file. Centralized processing operations serving two or more jurisdictions are currently operating in all but four states. See "Centralized Processing: A Directory of Centers." *Library Resources and Technical Services* 14 (Summer 1970): 355-389.

[12]BARC is the acronym for Bay Area Reference Center. See Richard Coenenberg, "Synergizing Reference Service in the San Francisco Bay Area." *ALA Bulletin* 62 (December 1968): 1379-1384; and Collin Clark, "Four Alarm Reference Service," *Library Journal* 85 (April 15, 1960): 1594-1595. The Bay Area Reference Center located in the San Francisco Public Library, began in 1967 with a two-year $750,000 LSCA grant, to provide reference referral service to public libraries in the North Bay Cooperative Library System.

[13]Among the alternatives are telefacsimile transmission between libraries in the North Bay and BARC using telephone lines, use of the teletype to transmit and receive reference questions; workshops (on sources of information), using outside subject experts have attracted librarians outside of BARC, even members of the public. Topics have ranged from contemporary poetry to genealogy, from sensitivity training to contemporary religions. At the latter, a featured speaker was Anton LeVay of the Satanist cult who spoke on witchcraft. Of the reference questions referred to BARC, as many as one-half are answered by persons or organizations

Regrouping by Subject. Perhaps the type of regrouping most difficult for libraries to effect because they are not normally oriented deeply to subject terms is in the area of subject arrangement. Subject contributions have been made by libraries in the past, if the production of the *Bibliography of Agriculture* by the U.S. Department of Agriculture Library or the *Engineering Index* by the Engineering Societies Library can be considered representative. But formal organization of libraries into subject information systems has been almost unknown. The prototypal form of this phenomenon can best be seen in the effort of the National Library of Medicine, using the MEDLARS device as the base but built also upon a pattern of regional medical libraries. The National Library of Medicine support terms have made it possible for a number of libraries around the country to be so designated and to operate as part of the overall National Library of Medicine system. Simultaneously there is energetic experimentation in at least one of the geographic areas in order to work out the design and implementation problems for a subject system within one region. Headquartered at the Upstate Medical Center Library of SUNY-Syracuse, this Biomedical Communications and Information Network[14] is an operational on-line, real-time system employing remote typewriter terminals located in some 10 public and private agencies in the East-Mid-Atlantic area. At this stage in the evolution of such devices, the system permits a high degree of man-machine interaction for search of the central computer store of bibliographic information.

Since the cost of designing such a local system is unquestionably high, it is only where a client population is large enough or strategic enough to support the effort that it is likely to be attempted. It is thus not surprising to find the prototypal form in medicine, a field in which all in the culture are seen to have a high stake. Even if it may be more economic to fashion a national network in order to increase the availability of resources, the distance and the problems are of such an order of magnitude that local or regional experimentation may provide effective clues for the engendering of the more comprehensive system at the national level at a later stage. While it is true that there is the same cost of design at the national level as at the regional level, and that the conceptualization of the problem is the same, the greatest value of the regional phenomenon may be reflected in its serving precisely as a prototypal version of the larger network. Essentially, it is a matter of at what point in the cycle of development the system is being developed. For the present it is perhaps more fruitful to subsidize developmental processes at the regional level, as is the case in the medical program, in order to test the viability on the regional level and thus ultimately evolve programs which can

outside of the library. See the "Somebody Asked Us" column in each issue of *Synergy*, for examples of these questions.

[14]See Irwin Pizer, "A Regional Medical Library Network," *Bulletin of the Medical Library Association* 57 (April 1969): 101-115; and Willis E. Bridegam and Erich Meyerhoff, "Library Participation in a Biomedical Communication and Information Network," *Bulletin of the Medical Library Association* 58 (April 1970): 103-111.

effectively function nationally in subject matter areas. Without regional experimentation, it may not be possible always to understand the nuances and problems of client service requirements which tend to be by-passed or be absent altogether from consideration on the national scene.

Within the area of subject information grouping, but representing a unique type, is the data archive which builds upon data collections rather than books and is a distinctive trend particularly noticeable in the social sciences. A construct somewhere between archives and libraries, the contemporary phenomenon may be characterized as an effort to extend the utility of social science data beyond the original collection purposes through making them available for computer analysis by multiple users. Varying widely in the scope of collection and nature of services,[15] from the largely non-machine-readable holdings of the Human Relations Area Files to the computerized data sets of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the success of some of these ventures[16] is assuredly due in part to the existence of a highly focused, technologically sophisticated group of users—the behaviorally-oriented political scientists. It is interesting to note here, too, that those who function in the data archive context as "librarians" or center managers appear to be drawn most heavily from the subject disciplines where the data collections are centered, rather than from traditional librarianship. The basic ability to perceive the discipline and to correlate the intelligence drawn from data based research with the research structure tends to be more essential than information handling expertise, at least at the earliest stages. Yet because data problems are of less consequence to the professional community carrying out the research than to the information handling community, individuals who play such roles gravitate toward an identification with the professional culture of information, forming an important element of the Special Interest Group in the Behavioral and Social Sciences of the American Society for Information Science.[17]

All Encompassing Designs. There do not yet appear to be any existing prototypal forms of national information systems which cover whole ranges of subject fields and address the needs of clienteles across the board. Elements of such a plan may be discerned in efforts which have no formal library ties, as the Federal Clearinghouse for Science and Technology, now the National Technical Information Service. Another prototypal design transcending national boundaries and oriented to the information require-

[15]A typology of social science data archives along these dimensions is outlined on pp. 12-14 of the generally useful overview by Ralph L. Bisco, ed., *Data Bases, Computers and the Social Sciences* (New York: Wiley-InterScience, 1970).

[16]Such as the Inter-University Consortium for Political Research headquartered at the University of Michigan, and the Roper Public Opinion Research Center at Williams College.

[17]The late Ralph Bisco (Technical Coordinator for the Council of Social Science Data Archives) and Douglas K. Stewart (Chairman, Executive Council, Social Science Information Center, University of Pittsburgh) served as successive Vice-Chairman of the ASIS-SIG-BSS. A strong plea for active integration of archive-library operations is advanced in: Jack Dennis, "The Relation of Social Science Data Archives to Libraries and Wider Information Networks," Working Paper B-4, *Proceedings, op. cit.*, pp. 1-16.

ments of the international scientific community is the UNISIST program which contemplates the establishment of a mechanism to promote compatability and interchange between existing and proposed information storage and retrieval systems in scientific and technological fields throughout the world.[18] While such designs may proliferate and are envisaged now by the more visionary, the fact of the matter is that some of the most fundamental questions relating to their efficacy have not yet been resolved.[19] Nor is it clear what, if any, relationship they will bear to libraries as institutions and librarians as professional practitioners. The closest approximation to such a format is found in the EDUCOM program. This inter-university cooperative venture attempts to bring together for purposes of discussion and exchange those who assume administrative responsibility in the several universities for local information and communication programs. The design is intended straightforwardly to improve the inter-institutional exchange of intelligence and communication capacity and encompasses not only libraries and computer efforts, but transmission forms of every kind and communication devices ranging from technological to behavioral. The organization appears to be as heavily committed to the problems of political relationships as to economic, copyright, computer technology, and the like. As such, it represents a very early stage in the process of bringing into common focus some of the mutual interests oriented to the fashioning of improved and enhanced programs of information access and serves as a vehicle for such communication and interchange of information and intelligence.[20] Still, while members of the library community have been involved almost from the outset in EDUCOM activities,[21] it is yet unclear how the work of this body will come to influence the library scene, or even if it will affect the scene at all.

With the possible exception of the all-embracing system and the subject regrouping, experience thus far would not suggest any dramatic departures for library programs in consequence of reconstructed organizational arrangements. Perhaps the fundamental limit is that in these regroupings,

[18]See *UNISIST: Feasibility Study for the Establishment of a World Science Information System* (New York: UNESCO Documents Office, 1971). The twenty-two recommendations made in the report were discussed at an Intergovernmental Conference convened by UNESCO, October 4-9, 1971.

[19]As pointed out in a recent editorial deploring the lack of progress toward bibliographic standardization. See Richard M. Dougherty, "Networks and Bibliographic Standardization," *College and Research Libraries* 31 (Nov. 1970): 377.

[20]Established in 1964 with 8 university participants, EDUCOM membership numbered at the time of writing over 100 universities, colleges and academic consortia and service organizations. Publications include staff papers and contract research on computer applications of interest to higher education, and EDUCOM: Bulletin *of the Interuniversity Communications Council*, issued six times yearly. The Educational Information Network (EIN) was initiated in 1969 to provide a switching center for the listing (*EIN Software Catalog*) and exchange of relevant computer programs

[21]Such as Joseph Becker, Director of Information Sciences, EDUCOM, 1966-1969, and Vice-President, 1969-1970. Members of the Board at the time of this writing include: Frederick Kilgour of the Ohio College Library Center; Allen Kent, Director of the Interdisciplinary Program in Information Sciences, University of Pittsburgh; and John McGowan, University Librarian, Northwestern University.

the basic rationale is not so much to design or to test experimental modes of service or of operation, as it is to develop present acceptability for the operating systems. Present acceptability implies consensus among the parties at interest who are identified with existing norms and values, both on the library side of the equation and in the legislative support bodies, who can be convinced of the need for resources which promise concrete programs oriented to the kinds of result which they have come to expect from established institutions and established operations. A recent critique of such efforts, while addressed primarily to the use of state aid funds, clearly delineates how patterns are controlled by those in and of librarianship who build upon prior discussions, surveys and analyses, all of which accept the underlying assumptions of traditional library practice.[22] The essential incongruity of the situation may be seen in the fact that political support for the advancement of new ideas is necessary, but that only when design considerations reflect the values of existing norms will those with professional expertise build such support bases. In consequence, novel aspirational efforts tend to be effectively negated. The ultimate question is whether the institutional forms which have the power base and the political capacity to elicit the support needed to achieve variation can realistically be expected to derive alternative responses to client needs which transcend their conventional responses. The final responsibility for the evaluation and the control of such adapted programs remains in the hands of just those individuals who have the greatest stake in the perpetuation of the programs and the least interest in dispassionate critique. And as such designs are recognized and identified, other organizations fall into step so as to enjoy the same political opportunities and economic incentives. The utility and the effectiveness of the designs are taken for granted as are the assumptions upon which they are based that increased resources and broadened organizational terms are intrinsically an improvement over what went before.

Revision of the Educational Design

The second important category of adaptation results in consequence of experimental or prototypal designs calculated as part of the educational strategy for the discipline. In order to foster and thus to formulate adapted models, the assumptions which have formed the basis for the educational experience of the field require altering. That is to say, a new conceptual framework forms the basis for revising either the substantive content, the cognitive process, or the perspectives and thus the intellectual contribution of those who offer and receive instruction, or all three. Our classification here conceives of essentially three different and yet overlapping types of modification. The first has to do with experimentation, based upon a revision in assumptions about the changing nature of professional practice, with the educational sequence seen as the test bed for adapting

[22]See Ralph Blasingame, "A Critical Analysis of State Aid Formulas," *Library Trends* 19 (Oct. 1970): 250-259.

the role of the practitioner to different terms. The second is built upon a commitment to the changed and changing nature of the technological capacity of the institution in which the professional practitioner is to be employed, thereby influencing the educational process more nearly to laboratory terms through experimentation in ways which adapt the instructional and the learning roles from prior terms to a greater emphasis upon the scientific and technical elements of practice. The third design parallels somewhat the mechanism of inter-institutional sharing, as reflected in library network activity, with the grouping of the formal structure and relationships in education for librarianship coming to transcend the limits of a single institution and a single professional curriculum. The object here is essentially to broaden the instructional base by offering the type of increased and revised options which have been foreclosed because of the traditional reliance upon only one faculty, one program, and through purely local recourse.

Experimenting in Revised Professional Roles. The process here builds upon a reconstructed paradigm for the professional contribution of the librarian or information worker. One sharply divergent conceptual perspective hypothesizes an inversion from reactive to proactive functionary. Such a design builds upon the acceptance of professional responsibility for client needs, oriented to fashioning services and functions committed to the perceived nature of the informational requisites of a distinctive community or particular constituency, rather than to the application of expertise in building a resource base within the context of the formal and conventional institution. The nature of such a revised sense of the professional role, translated into the context of education for librarianship, calls for sharp divergence in many of the traditional elements of the educational process. Such variations are clearly reflected in considering the ingredients of one such prototypal design, the program for the preparation of urban information specialists at the University of Maryland.[23]

Under the terms of this program, using as its framework an Office of Education funded Institute mounted within a library school, but functioning essentially independently of many of the normal academic and bureaucratic constraints, this experiment is attempting to invent and to refine the role and the contribution of the information professional in work with informationally deprived clients in the urban context. Its terms of reference accept the need for the revision and reconstruction of the purpose of a new professional class, building upon librarianship, but departing from it in fundamental ways. The potential for such professional functionaries is seen as that of directly contributing to the solution of social, political and economic problems in the urban culture, by affording active services and generating programs for client groups, using the public library as the base, where feasible, but transcending it by assuming

[23]See *Educational Program to Prepare Information Specialists to Work with the Informationally Deprived* (College Park: School of Library and Information Services, University of Maryland, June 1970).

staff roles in active organizations and agencies as well. Those drawn into the educational program bring to the experience a background in which the inner city is a familiar ambience: the proportions of black to white students is sharply reversed from the patterns which obtain in normal library education. The formal elements of instruction place high premium upon practical experience in the field in efforts intended to calculate new and effective strategies for affording untested, novel and meaningful information activities on behalf of distinctive clienteles, well beyond the normal concerns of the public library with its typical concentration upon published sources more nearly than client problems. Important variations from educational orthodoxy relate to the choice and to the selection of students who differ in very pronounced ways in background and in motivation from traditional library students. The instructional thrust, stemming from a consensual commitment among program faculty and resource personnel, is to employ an educational process out of an adapted theoretical model of the professional role, in order to invent and perfect a new work role, built upon information expertise. The substantive and intellectual design relies heavily upon the application and involvement of outside consultants and experts, with the learning context drawn widely beyond the traditional boundaries of the university to comprehend the city's streets, its agencies public and private, and many who represent areas uncommon to traditional education for information service. For an understanding of the nature of the urban culture, and the correlation between the informational contribution and the political, social, economic and psychological issues which have a bearing upon the scene form essential elements in the cognitive experience. Thus the entire program may be seen as a laboratory in which students, faculty, outside experts, and urban context, all form ingredients in a design to shape a uniquely different educational sequence and a drastically adapted professional functionary as its ultimate product.

Given the radically reconstructed and unorthodox orientation of such a design, it is less surprising to find that a whole range of academic, professional, and institutional difficulties would beset the effort.[24] For such a revised paradigm constitutes a threat to the traditional professional posture. What has been the presumed value-neutral library role has been an effort committed to the service of those elements in the culture which have enjoyed institutional support, served by librarians functioning within the framework of the public library in time honored ways. The peril to library orthodoxy of the present design is that it posits the thesis that implicit in the professional contribution is an identification which commits the terms of professional practice from institutional loyalty to client need. In view of the nature of the sketchiness of understanding of the information requirements of many of the elements of the culture which have not traditionally been the concern of librarianship, particularly in the rapidly changing urban setting, the obvious conclusion is to call

[24]The difficulties are thoroughly aired in Mary Lee Bundy. "Crisis in Library Education." *Library Journal* 96 (March 1, 1971): 797.

attention to the limits of conventional library instructional patterns, focused as they are upon institution and publications, rather than upon clients and problem solving.

Experimenting within the Context of a Technical Laboratory. In its essence, experimental designs which devolve about a revised technological role for librarianship, are simply a variation upon the same theme of a modified paradigm for professional practice. The difference is in the focus upon the technical system, rather than upon the client, but the problem solving orientation is similar. Founded upon the thesis that librarianship is susceptible of shifting from its craft basis to a more systematic and scientifically derived discipline which fully rationalizes the process of identifying, storing and retrieving information, such laboratory efforts promise to advance instruction and research by improving the technical sophistication of students in the process of their educational preparation. The Institute for Library Research at the University of California, at both Los Angeles and Berkeley, serves as the sharpest illustration.[25] Under the terms of such designs, library instruction is committed more fully to a logical and mathematical base, with computer application seen as the basis for improving the potential and the capacity of an evolving science of librarianship to be responsive to information needs. Thus machine-readable files, programming languages, and computer-aided instruction form crucial elements in laboratory exercises adapted to indexing, cataloging and reference activity, thereby familiarizing the student with the capacity, the present limits and the potential, for such applications to their future work roles. In this way, students are conditioned within the framework of their professional acculturation, to understand the nature and the promise of ongoing research in the technical terms of information work so as to perceive more readily the opportunities of exploiting such advances as may result in the course of their careers to their own occupational responsibilities. As such efforts are identified with the formal instructional program, first at the doctoral level, and over time more fully at the master's level of instruction, the correlation between experimental and laboratory undertakings with their promise of technological breakthroughs, becomes more basically a component of the educational orientation and thus the professional outlook of those who are prepared in such a way. The Syracuse University program employing MARC tapes in library education[26] is an illustration of a similar pattern, as is the Comparative Systems Laboratory which Case Western Reserve University has em-

[25]See the fourth progress report issued by the Institute: R. M. Hayes and M. E. Maron, *Institute of Library Research Annual Report*, July 1969-June 1970. (Los Angeles: University of California, 1970).

[26]The Library Education Experimental Project (LEEP) was initiated by Pauline Atherton of the Syracuse University School of Library Science in 1968 with partial support from the U.S. Office of Education. The program provides access to MARC I and MARC II data bases for analytical studies of cataloging practices at the Library of Congress and for retrieval evaluation investigations. See P. A. Atherton and J. A. Tessier, "Teaching with MARC Tapes," *Journal of Library Automation* 3 (March 1970): 24-35.

ployed in combining teaching and research into the evaluation of information retrieval systems.[27]

Such experiments, such laboratories, conceive the present as a way station along the route to an evolving new and rigorous discipline of librarianship. In its ultimate terms, professional library practice is visualized as a type of engineering practice built upon a body of scientific theories and laws, with information and bibliographic intelligence as the area of application. Efficiency, economy, and systems analysis are all plotted on the terrain as high roads to such a plateau.

A characteristic which both types of revision of the educational design thus far detailed share is their very heavy reliance upon external funding. Because library education has never been seen by the universities which offer such programs hospitality, as a laboratory-based discipline, the capacity for library education to elicit appropriate support levels from their local institutions to cover the high laboratory charges necessary in order to veer into non-traditional zones, without the intervention of federal contributions, is exceedingly limited. Still, without such adaptations little is changed except for the slogans of change. The momentum cannot be maintained simply and solely by imposing conditions of admission for certain of the students which depart from the normal requirements in library education.[28]

Moreover, there is a fundamental and perhaps irreconcilable difference between the conceptual basis for the experiments which start from the point of client commitment from those hinged upon rendering the information process more rational and scientific. In their nature, each commits the educational process to the development of a different form of practitioner for essentially, they are betting on different things. One holds to the notion that the information specialist centers his zeal intrinsically upon determining the nature of client requirements and then the fashioning of information products and services which match such perceived needs. With the other, the information specialist is the expert, and he concentrates, therefore, essentially upon the elements of the information process, ever rationalizing, improving and redesigning the engineering capacity of the system. Yet, both lines of departure represent alternate routes to traditional library educational patterns which have heretofore centered upon neither alternative. It may not be until another and more

[27]A Division of the School of Library Science at Case Western Reserve University since 1955, the Center for Documentation and Communication Research offers a sequence of specialized courses "carried out in a laboratory atmosphere in order to provide a creative environment for the teaching of documentation techniques". The Center is equipped with a computer and full range of peripheral devices. Course descriptions are included in *Academic Program* (The Center for Documentation and Communication Research, School of Library Science, Case Western Reserve University).

[28]The Graduate School of Library Service at the University of California at Los Angeles offers two degrees: the M.L.S. with fairly standard admissions requirements; and the Master of Science in Information Science which is open to persons who hold appropriate B.A. or B.S. degrees in one of the physical or biological sciences, business administration or mathematics. One foreign language and a background in mathematics through calculus are also required.

advanced stage in the evolution of library education and research, that these two promising avenues converge to the point where the product of the library education sequence is equipped for a professional contribution which fully calculates both requisites.

Experiments in Educational Regrouping. Essentially, it has only been specialized institutes and seminars, convened by associations as fully as by educational agencies, and conducted in the main for limited periods, which have tended to transcend the formal constraints of regular university offerings. One widely followed mode, adapted to the needs to those active in practice, has been the MARC institutes conducted under the auspices of the Information Science and Automation Division of the American Library Association.[29] Such exposures are designed within their concentrated two or three-day span, to elucidate the technical content and variable potential for applying magnetic tapes of new cataloging data to local institutional requirements. Formal interrelationships between and among library education programs, in ways which might capitalize on resources and capabilities from other institutions, except for summer visiting faculty and the incidental guest lecturer or seminar participant, have simply not yet advanced beyond the level of academic abstration.[30] For the same kind of constraints which make it unappealing for library administrators to relinquish their control and responsibility by relying upon external organizations in a library network as essential support sources in satisfying local requirements doubtless condition the provincial perspectives of library education faculties and administrators.

There have been some experimental beginnings, however. In the area of data processing, for example, a course developed and taught by Hillis Griffin at the University of Illinois has been put on video tape and is available.[31] Modern video procedures, reduced in both complexity and cost, and widely available among higher educational institutions, undoubtedly are tending to catalyze experiments and demonstrations, not only at points remote from where the tapes are prepared, but in local situations as well. Such devices have been employed in at least one educational institution in library education as a response to space limitations.[32] Likewise, programmed instruction materials, using scrambled textbooks as exercise manuals in studies in the use of general classification schemes like the Dewey Decimal Classification, the Colon Classification, and UDC, and in certain other subject cataloging and indexing techniques like chain indexing, have led to the development of more advanced efforts

[29]As, for example, the MARC Institutes which were held in San Francisco and Boston in 1970 and in Los Angeles and New York City in 1971.

[30]See Judith A. Tessier, "Network Services for Library Education and Research" Working Paper *Proceedings, op. cit.*

[31]See *JOLA Technical Communication,* Information Science and Automation Division, American Library Association. January 1970, Vol. 1. No. 2, p. 8.

[32]See John Phillip Immroth, "I'm a Media Freak! The Use of New Media in the Teaching of Library School Courses," *Library Journal* 96 (June 1, 1971): 1935-36, for description of methods at University of Pittsburgh.

as reflected in the work at the University of Wisconsin, leading to publication by McGraw Hill for use in cataloging instruction.[33] A simple variation on the same theme is the use of collections of readings for instructional purposes based upon the perspectives of one faculty member in a single place who identifies and arranges for the publication of selections from the literature as a substitute or alternative to a textbook where no single monograph will suffice.[34]

As in higher education generally, attempts to innovate by designs which conflict with local prerogatives tend seriously to run afoul of local conventions and constraints. There is no reasonable technological barrier to the video taping of instructional packages at leader institutions for export to other institutions which could make use of such presentations. Such video lectures (in combination with selected readings) might be supplemented by visits at periodic intervals from the national or regional authorities who would have prepared such courses, to the institutions where they are used, for in-person sessions with students who would be carrying out the requirements of such courses under the guidance of junior faculty. Coordinated and administered by such master teachers, courses of this nature would serve to effectively regroup the educational offerings in selected areas of study, within the framework of an instructional network governed by substantive experts whose talents would thus be exploited well beyond the limits of their own institutional base. Library education, just as other educational forms, resists such patterns for reasons genuine as well as spurious. Still, in a discipline subject to serious limits of pedagogic excellence, in a time of pronounced expansion of library education offerings and student numbers at both the graduate and undergraduate level, and when drastic limits are almost universally placed upon increasing the scale of faculty size, such devices may be less farfetched. Even so, the engineering of acceptance for such a dramatic departure from normal bureaucratic limits in educational institutions would be prone to tread very heavily upon the sensitivities of many in library education, who, like their counterparts in library practice, think of their student groups just as library administrators think of their clienteles, as being unique, different, and requiring a tailor-made product which only they can fashion. At present, even the sharing of intelligence about curricular modification is exceedingly limited, with the only consensual effort being carried out under the auspices of the Education Committee of ASIS in an effort to derive a model curriculum at the master's level for students of information science.[35] For the present, at least, the greatest promise of revision in the educational design resides exclusively in the singular

[33]J. J. Boll, *Introduction to Cataloging, Volume I: Descriptive Cataloging*, McGraw Hill Series in Library Education (McGraw Hill Book Co., 1971).

[34]This is the precise intent of the National Cash Register, Microcard Editions, Inc. Series, "Readers in Librarianship and Information Science."

[35]Jack Belzer and Others, "Curricula in Information Science: Analysis and Development," *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, Vol. 22, No. 3 (May-June 1971), pp. 192-223.

effort at the individual institution far more nearly than in any collaborative or cooperative efforts underway now or in prospect.

Differential Institutional Responses

An important element of prototypal interest is the independent and unique library which carries out a program which varies in significant ways from the traditional patterns of library contribution. Taylor has spoken of an "experimenting library" as something quite different from an "experimental library".[36] As an illustration for the discipline, the library which itself is demonstrating the capacity of fashioning an alternative response offers to the field a view of an alternative strategy and contribution which provides evidence of the possibility for such variation. Of course, to some degree every library carries out a program which includes some elements unique to the local situation. But it is the institution which affords, in sum, a radically reoriented outlook upon its commitments and reflects such perspectives in terms of its ongoing program which holds out promise, challenge and opportunity for others which would emulate such a design.

One such library is that of the Federal City College in Washington, D.C. Among the innovative characteristics which distinguish it from typical libraries which function within the framework of the urban higher educational institution, this library provides a highly unique combination of services which transcend the conventional limits of the academic library. A media store, offering books as well as other forms of audio and visual products, operates in close conjunction with the library so that the selling and the lending of such resources are subject to a common administration which correlates and interrelates both functions. A formal media instructional program under the jurisdiction of the library involves library personnel in the offering of courses of instruction to students at several levels of education in the use and the application of audio visuals and bibliographic resources. A media communications program devised and administered as an extension service of the library, oriented to student body and faculty and beyond it to the urban community as well, develops publications and information services which integrates the educational effort to the community scene. One important vehicle of communication is the college press, which like the media store, is closely integrated within the library's structure. A specific product of such efforts was the 1970 *Capital Media Guide,* an inventory of local information sources. Under development is a *Black Information Index,* being prepared in cooperation with other research libraries which concentrate upon black interests, demonstrating the library role as responsible agent for controlling the literature in a particular sphere of direct concern to its constituency. The total impact of such activities, conducted in addition to the usual library services, is to give the library a cast and a character unique and different from

[36]Robert S. Taylor, "Planning a College Library for the 70's," *Educational Record,* Fall 1969, p. 431.

what has normally been expected by library clients. The influence which this library bears upon the entire educational enterprise is felt in many ways for the effects of such library activities demonstrate the viability of library services to the broad sweep of educational affairs, well beyond the inventorying and lending of books.

The Hampshire College Library, begun in 1970 as part of a new and experimental independent liberal arts institution, offers another prototypal form of undergraduate library. The unique characteristic of this library is the way in which it is shaping its program in response to its orientation to the client group, rather than to the traditional library concerns. Under such unorthodox terms, the library effort is being based upon evaluation and assessment of how those for whom libraries are intended do or do not use libraries, exploiting multiple media forms and arranging for the involvement and instruction of users in information access all as part of the normal process of library services.[37] As in the instance of the Federal City College Library, the design here calls for an amalgamation of services which transcend simply the provision of access to books. Thus, audiovisual systems, copying services, bookstore, and computer center, all are seen to function legitimately within a revised concept of the communications responsibility of the library in the context of the academic milieu. By integrating each of these efforts under a common rubric, a new conceptual framework embraces in natural relationship an alternative constellation of programs and services in a revised and prototypal new form of library.

Still a different educational context was the staging area employed in the novel design promulgated at the Education Center Library of the Board of Education of Toronto.[38] The basic assumption here was that it is inappropriate for students to spend their time looking for material, but rather that they should be encouraged to concentrate upon the substantive side of the problems upon which they are engaged in their course of study. Instead, a central system-wide staff of librarians would assume responsibility for searching, identifying and delivering the information needed. Individual students or class groups conducting study projects were thus relieved of responsibility for locating published material, and the library took upon itself the task of locating and delivering photocopies of pertinent materials, freeing the students to concentrate solely upon the problem rather than the search. Such a conceptual scheme considers the library as the medium between the information store and its user and accepts responsibility as part of the role of the library and of librarians for identifying and delivering information as it is needed by clients, instead of simply preparing the collection and offering help to clients as

[37]See Robert S. Taylor, "A Program to Develop Methods of Orienting the Library to the User" (Hampshire College, Amherst, Massachusetts, January, 1971).

[38]Leonard Freiser, "Information Retrieval for Students," *Library Journal*, March 15, 1963, p. 1121. Also Leonard Freiser "Students and Spoon-Feeding in School," *Library Journal*, September 1963, p. 15-17.

they search for themselves. Such a revised paradigm of school library service builds upon the notion that the commitment and responsibility of the librarian is to gather the intelligence, that the user is only an amateur at the task of information searching, and that he is better advised to concentrate upon the problem and leave the search to the library expert. This model clearly comes into conflict with the thesis that the user must simply be helped to help himself and that it is somehow professionally immoral to do the job for the information seeker. It proposes a library role not typically assumed except perhaps in the case of the special library where the client is often seen to command the intermediary efforts of the librarian in order not to divert his own time and effort from the substantive problem to the search. This issue is at the core of the library's purpose and the Toronto prototype forms the basis for pondering what has been demonstrated to be a viable alternative to the terms of conventional practice.

Revised Role Definitions

In the final analysis, perhaps the most suggestive demonstrations of prototypal variation must be sought in the real world of reconstituted professional practice. As this is the case, the models and guidelines for future professional behavior tend most readily to be established in an operational context, so that those who strive to revise their roles in order to perform otherwise may identify, observe and understand the implications and characteristics through such examples. Such revised terms of practice may be seen in three different and yet somewhat related phenomena, all of which in their essence divert library norms and the purposes of information practice from the institution and its aspirations to the client. The particular models selected here are those of the subject bibliographer in the academic setting, the detached or floating librarian acting out a role in response to client need, the reconstituted role of the reference librarian, and the advocate of a distinctive client group who combines information expertise with identification with an indigenous culture from which he is drawn and for whom he performs.

The Subject Bibliographer. This form has evolved out of the academic library's aspiration to collect the appropriate materials and thereby build suitable book collections for use by distinctive elements in its clientele. Because the bibliographic apparatus and the structure of the literature in many disciplines is perceived best by those with appreciable subject expertise, this ingredient has typically been more heavily valued in the role than library know-how. Subject bibliographers tend to be drawn from the ranks of those committed to a particular discipline, or set of disciplines, if they are to function as sensitive liaison personnel between faculty groups and the academic library. Since they represent the interests of a single scholarly field, or, in some instances, a broader sphere such as the social sciences, their responsibility is to reflect the values and the requirements of such faculty elements primarily in the area of collection development,

but also in reviewing the value and relevance of library programs and services as they affect the interests of their constituency.

To the degree that the bibliographer identifies with a precise clientele with whom he forms colleague relationships and from whom he draws his political support, he is often perceived within the library setting as alien to the commitments of the library. His alienation may be accentuated to the degree that he performs outside the normal bureaucratic constraints of the library. In this manner, the subject bibliographer shifts one level beyond the departmental librarian who, while attempting to build programs and services for clearly defined constituencies, all the while tends more nearly to remain subject to the hierarchical and bureaucratic limits of the library's organizational structure. Moreover, the subject bibliographer tends naturally toward identifying with those committed to a particular branch of scholarship. Since he has concentrated heavily in the information structure of the discipline and because he quite frequently may offer course work in its bibliography, collegial links with the faculty and students of the field may more readily be formed than with those who work within the framework of the library hierarchy. Such role identification and role performance tend then to build into the operational system of the library an advocacy commitment less to the ends of the library to the extent that these are different than to the goals of the client group. In the library which aspires to maintain a system of uniform response to the several elements of its constituency, such partisanship contains the seeds of internecine discord. Moreover, to the degree that bibliographers are exempt from the ritual requirements of set hours, work schedules and supervised assignments, and function in the academic pattern of the independent faculty functionaries with whom they consort, they form a cadre intrinsically upsetting to the library's bureaucratic norms.

With increases in the numbers of university and research libraries built upon developing depth and breadth in their subject collections, the capacity of the traditional efforts of libraries to build rationally and economically appears more and more limited without the intervention of such a professional functionary as the subject bibliographer. Furthermore, in more and more academic institutions, responsible library correspondence with constituency need is become as much a political as a substantive requisite. Still, the ultimate implications of this emergent role, particularly in consequence of the divergence in the responsibilities, commitments and loyalties implicit in its performance, are still unclear.[39] So long as the phenomenon remains limited, so long as such functionaries are few in number, they may perhaps be seen as aberrations who can be contained, albeit gingerly, within the customary bureaucratic structure. But even so, they demonstrate a prototypal alternative to earlier role models and put

[39]The role of the subject bibliographer has received intensive investigation through a grant from the Council on Library Resources. See Eldred Smith, *The Specialist Librarian and the Academic Research Library* (Berkeley: University of California, May 1971).

clearly on notice those who would forge a new professional personality and organizational posture that alternatives do exist.

The Floating Librarian. This prototypal form represents more nearly a conceptual proposition than a program reality. Its hypothesis suggests that information personnel have active roles to play, particularly in relation to disadvantaged groups in the culture, but only to a degree that such individuals gravitate toward clear relationships with client organizations for whom they will then negotiate the information structure in order to advance their political, economic and social ends. Essentially, this projected role involves such functionaries with clients and client groups who do not yet themselves understand the nature of their need for professional information support. And it must find support out of a professional discipline which remains fundamentally uncertain about the need to extend the boundaries of its concern beyond its institutional limits and into the zone of problem solving responsibility for individual or organizational clients. Still, the power of the idea has captured the imagination of many, particularly among activist elements of the field and spawned serious institute sessions centered upon assessing the viability of the construct and calculating the means for translating the idea into its operational terms.[40]

The Reconstructed Reference Librarian. By definition, reference librarianship is a reactive role, in consequence of which it bears little influence upon the nature of library responsibility for anticipating problems or for transmitting intelligence about client requirements. The reference desk is where those who seek information which may be presumed to be contained in the library's collections solicit assistance in negotiating that collection. The reference librarian is the library's agent in aiding such information seekers. The divorce of the problem solving agent from the constituency and its normal concerns is customarily complete. But it need not be so. In at least one experimental design at Hamline University, reference librarians are being actively deployed in the field working directly and closely with students and faculty precisely in order to derive the information services which their understanding and involvement lead them to believe will assist in problem solving.[41] As the nature of information needs is distilled, the reference librarian is better able to support user requirements and to exploit on their behalf a switching system which correlates information need with on campus and off campus information services and which expedites the delivery of sought-for material. What is unique about such a design is the way it adapts the role of the reference librarian from detached bureaucratic functionary insulated from the client base by distance and the formidable barrier of the reference desk, to one

[40]Mary Lee Bundy, "Educating the Floating Librarian." A challenge paper presented for the Congress for Change. June 20-22, 1969. May 1969. 6 leaves, mimeo.

[41]See Jack B. King, Herbert F. Johnson and Anne ... Mavor, "What Future, Reference Librarian?" *RQ*, Spring 1971, p. 243-247.

which builds upon a close and supportive relationship with clients. Seen thus, the client becomes a real human being engaged upon tasks which are the better for efficient and prompt information access, and the reference librarian is recast in the role of sympathetic and client-committed staff functionary, knowledgeable about problem terms, not by virtue of single question negotiation, but through direct involvement and association with substantive personnel over time. If the impersonal and depersonalized reference function is to yield to an adapted paradigm of client oriented process, such a reconstruction of role would appear to bear watching as an original design for shifting to higher ground.

The Advocacy Role. Traditional limits of library service have stopped at the point of attempting to match the user and the information sought. Advocacy implies something more. It carries the professional role beyond, and enlists its expertise in the cause of advancing the needs of the client group first by pragmatically resolving their information problems and then extending beyond into other spheres which relate to a range of other requirements of the constituency. One prototypal illustration of such effort is found in Project LEAP, operated as part of the Buffalo and Erie County Public Library System.[42] With the neighborhood library as a base, community services are committed not to the classic library values of books and reading, but more nearly to serve as a mediating agent for the constituency by bringing intelligence, drawn from whatever source and in whatever form, to bear upon cultural requirements. If client need runs to specialized programs or the counsel of experts, or to the provision of informational or advisory assistance in resolving occupational, social or economic problems, such problems are conceived to be within the framework of the advocacy responsibility of the librarian on behalf of his constituency. Thus the information role transcends that of simply locating published sources and becomes one of negotiating or assisting in the negotiation of the information structure in order to permit clientele, individually and collectively, to make their way and improve their condition in consequence of active intervention of library personnel on their behalf. In a complex time when information access forms a powerful and basic element of the urban problem solving process, those not adequately sensitized or acculturated to the devices for finding the facts, tend to be further disadvantaged and left without the means to negotiate the system. Still, the advocacy role carries as a prime condition for its effectiveness, the service of an indigenous functionary whose values and allegiance may be perceived to correspond unswervingly with those of the client group, rather than the institutional structure. For there is an important and subtle difference between the value neutral technical expert who brings his superior knowledge to a client group and one who functions as agent of a client group, sharply and unceasingly conscious

[42]See "Programs of the Library Education Assistance Project of Buffalo." *Study of Library Services for the Disadvantaged in Buffalo, Rochester and Syracuse* (New York University, School of Education, 1969. p. 74-145).

of how their needs and aspirations are different from the conventional norms toward which the institutional system has been oriented, since he himself arises from this element of the culture.

In all of the variable role models of prototypal forms which have been characterized, what appears to be emerging and which is yet far from being consensually accepted as the commitment or the responsibility of librarianship or even any important portion of the discipline is a clear shift from institutional to client and clientele identification. The groping has yet to be fully conceptualized, or even widely and fully articulated. But the new paradigm contains the basis for a wholly reconstructed sense of the intrinsic professional contribution which departs from prior history and experience. The essential question is whether such experimentation and prototypal development can be expanded, elaborated and further accommodated within the framework of the library profession and of the field's institutional base. If so, it might well become a new and significant added pattern of response to strengthen the discipline and the institution, in order to lend it new vitality and momentum. Or if it is contained and remains exceptional, whether that coterie of involved individuals will disassociate themselves from the present institutional structure and like the embryo information science attempt to forge an emergent professional client oriented discipline divorced and distinct from librarianship.

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